MANUAL

OF

STANDING INFORMATION

FOR THE

MADRAS PRESIDENCY,

1893.

MADRAS:
PRINTED BY THE SUPERINTENDENT, GOVERNMENT PRESS.

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CHAPTER I.

PHYSICAL FEATURES OF COUNTRY, AREA, CLIMATE AND CHIEF STAPLES.

GEOGRAPHY.

1. SITUATION AND BOUNDARIES OF THE PRESIDENCY.—The present Madras Presidency, or the Presidency of Fort St. George, occupies the southern portion of the peninsula from latitude 20° 18′ on the eastern coast and latitude 14° on the western coast to Cape Comorin in latitude 8° 4′; the longitude ranges from 74°·9′ to 85° 15′. The extreme linear length of the presidency, from north-east to south-west, is about 950 miles; its extreme linear breadth is about 450 miles. The coast-line on the east commences north at the confines of the large salt lagoon called the Chilka Lake in the Bengal district of Cuttack, and gives a boundary successively to the Ganjám, Vizagapatam, Gódávari, Kistna, Nellore, Madras, Chingleput, South Arcot, Tanjore, Madura and Tinnevelly districts, and a small portion of Travancore State. This makes about 1,250 miles of coast washed by the Bay of Bengal, Palk's Strait, and the Gulf of Manár. The coast-line on the west commences north at the village of Shirúr a few miles south of Bhatkal near the Honáwár estuary, being the boundary between the Bombay district of North Canara and the Madras district of South Canara, and gives a boundary successively to the South Canara and Malabar districts and the Cochin and Travancore States; this makes a coast-line of about 450 miles washed by the Arabian Sea. On every side but the north, the presidency is washed by the open sea. The irregular northern boundary has been formed by accidents of history. On the extreme north-east is the Bengal province of Orissa; next come the highlands of the Central Provinces; then across the greater part of the peninsula the Dominions of the Nizám of Haidarábád, separated from Madras by the Kistna river and its tributary the Tungabhadra; lastly, on the north-west by west, the districts of Dhárwár and North Canara in the Bombay Presidency. This description leaves out of account the Mysore and Coorg territories, which geographically speaking form as much a portion of the presidency as do the tributary states of Travancore and Cochin on the south. The Amíni Divi and Laccadive Islands form for administrative purposes a part of Madras Presidency, being attached to the districts of South Canara and Malabar respectively. Off the south-east lies the British colony of Ceylon, separated by a shallow strait across which runs the string of rocks and sandbanks known as "Adam's Bridge."

2. MOUNTAINS, RIVERS AND LAKES.—From a physical point of view the presidency may be roughly divided into three portions, the long and broad eastern coast, the shorter and narrower western coast, and the high tableland in the interior. These divisions are determined by the two great mountain ranges of the Eastern and Western Gháts, which give the key to the configuration of all Southern India. The two chains extend along the opposite coasts, parallel to each other, or rather diverging, and leaving between them and the sea only a plain of forty or fifty miles in breadth. They rise in few places above 3,000 or 4,000 feet high; but are very rugged and steep, and the entrance into the interior is only by very narrow and difficult passes. The name of ghát, which, through the Teutonic languages, has come to the English language in the word 'gate' being applied to these passes, has been gradually extended to the mountains themselves. The Eastern Gháts, which lie entirely within this Presidency, form a continuation of the hill system of Chutiá Nágpur. They run in a south-westerly direction almost through the entire length of Madras, until they lose themselves in the Nílgiris,

and there join with the western range. Their average height is 1,500 feet, and for the most part they leave a broad expanse of low land between their base and the sea. Their line is pierced by the Gódávari, Kistna and Cauvery rivers, as well as by minor streams; so that they do not perform the part of a watershed. The Western Gháts, on the other hand, which stretch southwards continuously along the shore of the India Ocean from the north of Bombay, satisfy all the characteristics of a mountain range. Rising steeply at a distance of 10 to 50 miles in the Madras districts from the coast, they catch the greater part of the rainfall of the monsoon, and in the south no stream breaks through them. Some of their peaks attain an elevation of from 5,000 to 8,000 feet. Though steep and stony, the hills are not broken, but covered generally with a stratum of earth, sustaining stately forests, particularly of bamboo, which is found nowhere else in equal perfection. The interior, between these two chains, consists chiefly of successive tablelands supported by the opposite gháts and by chains crossing from one to the other, diversified also by single precipitous eminences, which are formed into almost impregnable hill forts. One continuous chain, the Vindhya Mountains, runs across the broad base of the peninsula, and forms a rugged boundary between it and the great plain of Hindustán proper. On the west this is connected with a range of bold and lofty hills, which compose the territory of Rájasthán. The most southerly central tableland, with an elevation of from 1,000 to 3,000 feet, includes the whole of Mysore and extends over several of the Madras districts. There are again in the south various minor hill systems. The Nílgiris which form the junction of the two main ranges, are generally regarded as a distinct block of hills; they culminate in Dodabetta, till lately regarded as the highest peak in Southern India. At this height, the traveller from the plains enjoys cool and refreshing breezes, with a rich and romantic scenery of hills, lakes and waterfalls. The region is inhabited by the Todas, a race of shepherds, speaking a peculiar language, and almost entire strangers to the mythology and manners of the inhabitants of the plains. There are also outlying spurs and masses of hills, of which the Shevaroys in Salem, the Ánamalais in Coimbatore, and the Palni Hills in Madura are the most important. At the Palghat gap the Western Gháts fall to a height of 1,000 feet above sea-level, by a break 25 miles wide through which runs the principal railroad of the south of India. They then resume their course at full level down to Cape Comorin, and immediately widen out into the highland tract that lies between Madura on the one side, and Malabar, Cochin and Travancore on the other; this highland being known as the Ánamalais in the Coimbatore district and as the Palnis in Madura. The hill tract here mentioned, higher than the Nílgiris in parts, and much more extensive, becomes narrower again opposite the Cumbum valley in Madura, and behind Tinnevelly becomes only a mountain range between the two coasts with a restricted area. The tract is very extensive, and is likely to open a field for European enterprise as the Nílgiris range becomes fully occupied. The Ánaimudi mountain in the Ánamalai range is now known to be the highest in Southern India, its summit being 8,850 feet above the level of the sea.

3. The Ganges and the Indus in the north of India finally absorb all the waters which descend from the southern face of the Himálaya; and these flowing either eastward or westward over the vast plain of Central India, leave between them a large expanse of arid desert bordering on the Indus. All the other waters of India belong to what is called peninsular India. Beginning from the north, the first two that occur flow eastward into the Gulf of Cambay; the Narbadá, parallel to the Vindhya chain, and fed by its streams; and the Taptí, which passes by Surat. There the chain of the Western Gháts begins, whence all the other large rivers flow eastward into the Bay of Bengal. The principal of these are the Gódávari, the Kistna and the Cauvery; all sacred in the eyes of the Hindu, and truly valuable by their services to irrigation and commerce. These rivers have the same uniform features. They rise in the Western Gháts, and run across the peninsula in a south-easterly direction. They drain rather than water the upper country through which they flow, and are comparatively valueless there either for navigation or irrigation. But they spread over alluvial deltas before they reach the sea, and at that stage become capable of being restrained and utilized by the agricultural engineer. The estimated basin area of the Gódávari is 112,200

square miles, and its length is 898 miles. The estimated basin area of the Kistna is 94,500 square miles, and its length is 800 miles. The estimated basin area of the Cauvery is 327,700 square miles, and its length is 472 miles. Each of these rivers has a large tributary system of its own. Other rivers on the east coast, of similar character but smaller dimensions, are the North and South Pennéru or Pinákiní (the southern being called Ponnaiyár), the Pálár, the Vellár, the Vaigai, and the Tambraparni. The area of country drained by rivers running westward is only the narrow strip of territory between the Western Gháts and the sea. As a rule, the country slopes gradually from the eastern base of the western mountain chain down to the Coromandel Coast, while the fall is sudden and precipitous on the western side of the mountains.

4. It is somewhat remarkable that in so large a region as India, with so many mountains and waters, there should scarcely be a lake. To find this feature on a great scale it is necessary to penetrate the northern barrier of India into Central Asia. So-called lakes are the Chilka on the Coromandel Coast at the confines of this presidency, and the Pulicat Lake on the same coast within the Presidency. But these are really mere salt marshes like the Mareotis or Menzaleh. Pulicat Lake, 33 miles in length from north to south, forms a more or less important backwater for inland communication between Madras city and the northern districts. This lake is supposed to have been caused by the sea breaking in through the low sandy beach. On the western coast, the perpetual antagonism between the mountain torrents and the ocean has produced a remarkable series of backwaters or lagoons, which skirt the entire seaboard of Canara, Malabar and Travancore. The largest is the backwater of Cochin, which extends from north to south for a distance of 120 miles. These backwaters also are used for inland navigation. A projecting spur of the gháts for a long time interrupted communication, but this has now been tunnelled, and continuous water communication is provided by this means between Cochin and the capital of Travancore, to be prolonged southwards to Cape Comorin by an artificial canal.

5. Climate and Productions.—The peculiar physical geography of the peninsula with a large mountain chain running from north to south along its western boundary, is of importance in regard to climate and the productions of the various portions of the country. The western hills have the effect of arresting the lower strata of rain clouds brought up from the Indian Ocean by the periodical winds of the south-west monsoon, and of causing excessive rain precipitation on the narrow strip of coast-line on the western side of the peninsula. Where the mountain range is of great height, as between Malabar and Coimbatore, the rain clouds are almost entirely diverted from the districts immediately below the mountains on the eastern side; and while the annual rainfall on the western side may be one hundred and fifty inches, not more than twenty inches are usually registered on the eastern side, immediately within the influence of the mountain ranges. Where the mountain chain is of lower elevation, the rain clouds pass over the hills, and rain is precipitated in uncertain and varying amount over the peninsula to the east of the gháts; but, except in the northern districts, where the rainy season approximates to that of Bengal, the heaviest rainfall of the southern portion of the eastern division of the peninsula occurs during the period of the north-east monsoon. During the continuance of this monsoon, the western ranges of mountains have a similar effect in arresting the rain clouds, so that at the season of the year when the Carnatic is visited by heavy rain, the western coast districts enjoy clear weather. The climate thus varies considerably in the different parts of the Presidency. The Nílgiri Hills enjoy the climate of the temperate zone, with a moderate rainfall, and a thermometer rarely exceeding 80° F., and sometimes falling to freezing-point. In 1876, the mean temperature in the shade at the sanitarium of Wellington was 61·2° F. On the Malabar coast, the south-west monsoon brings an excessive rainfall, reaching 150 inches in the year at certain places. The rain clouds hanging on the slope of the Western Gháts sometimes obscure the sun for months at a time. Along the eastern coast and on the central tablelands the rainfall is comparatively low, but the heat of the summer months is excessive. At Masulipatam the thermometer frequently rises to above 110° F. in the shade, and to 170° in the sun. Observations extending over a period

of sixty-three years give an average of 48·9 inches of rain in the year at Madras city; but this is considerably above the mean of the east coast generally. At Bellary the average annual rainfall does not exceed 22 inches, of which 16 inches are brought by the south-west monsoon across the ghâts. The whole coast of the Bay of Bengal is liable to disastrous cyclones, which not only wreck the shipping in the roads, but have repeatedly overwhelmed the low-lying ports.

6. To the physical barrier of the Western Ghâts must be attributed not only the vast differences of climate, but also those of the nature of the productions, in the eastern and western divisions of the peninsula. In the former division the uncertainty and capricious character of the rainfall has taught the cultivators of the soil the necessity of making provision for the storage of water for irrigation purposes, and innumerable tanks or reservoirs scattered throughout the country are the result. On the western side of the mountains, however, the necessity for such works has never arisen. There the periodical rains fall with great regularity as to time and quantity, and the earth produces so abundantly that, although in certain exceptional years there may be partial failures of crops, absolute agricultural distress as a result of bad seasons is quite unknown. Only three of the twenty-one districts of which the Madras Presidency is composed lie within the influence of the never-failing rains of the south-west monsoon. In the remaining eighteen districts nature demands the assistance of art in the collection, storage, and distribution of the rain-supply. In some of these eighteen districts however, as in the northern coast area, the periodical rains fall more regularly than in others, giving them thus an advantage. In several of these also the rivers running eastward, swelled by the south-west monsoon rains, form an additional source of irrigation. The chief staples of the presidency are rice; cholam (a kind of maize); cumbu (a kind of millet); rági and varagu amongst food-grains; gingelly amongst oil-seeds; and chillies, tobacco, sugar-cane, plantains and betel-leaf amongst garden crops. Cotton, which may be regarded as a special crop, has a cultivation almost equalling that of rági. The trees most grown for their fruits are cocoa-nut, areca-nut, jack, tamarind and mango. Rice, as might be expected, is produced in the largest quantities in the alluvial and highly-irrigated districts of Tanjore, Gódávari, and Kistna on the east coast, and in Malabar and Canara on the west coast, where the rainfall is abundant. Cholam is principally cultivated in the tableland districts of Bellary and Kurnool, while cumbu and rági are most extensively grown in the other inland, but less elevated, districts, such as Salem and Coimbatore. Cocoanut palms flourish most luxuriantly on the banks of the estuaries and back-waters or salt-water lagoons of the western districts of Malabar and Canara, and areca-nut palms in the valleys intersecting the lower slopes of the Western Ghâts.

7. General Survey, the West Coast.—When the Konkan territories in Bombay are left behind to the north, all that ever constituted part of the Mughal empire, or at least was regularly apportioned among its provinces, has been quitted. The south of India may be said to reach from this point to Cape Comorin, and to begin with the maritime tract of Malabar. The name of Malabar properly belongs to a kingdom, of which the capital, Calicut, was found by the first Portuguese navigators to be the seat of a considerable dominion, under a sovereign called the Zamorin. Under a misconception of the extent of the country the name Malabar was extended to neighbouring countries, and has even been applied loosely to all the western coast of the peninsula as far as the Gulf of Cambay. Considered as the coast reaching from the Konkan to Cape Comorin, it forms a region 500 miles in length, 30 or 40 in breadth, interposed between the India Ocean and the almost continuous chain of the Western Ghâts. This position supplies it with copious moisture. Its surface, rugged, rocky and irregular, may be rendered highly productive with careful cultivation, which is generally bestowed. It yields very large crops of rice, forming an article of export to Bombay and the northern coasts. But the ancient staple of its European commerce is pepper, produced in greater abundance and perfection than in any other part of the globe. It produces also very copiously the noted Indian luxury, the betel-leaf and areca-nut; likewise ginger, cardamoms, and several other spices. The new product of coffee forms an important export to European countries. The upper districts abound with fine timber,

particularly the teak, so pre-eminently valuable for ship-building; also sandal, sapan, and other dyeing and ornamental woods. The region does not contain any fine or flourishing manufactures, unless the modern industry in machine-made earthen tiles be reckoned as such; but with its grain, timber and spices purchases the fine cottons of Gujarát. Social life throughout Malabar presents a very remarkable aspect. The original structure of Hindu society has not been altered by foreign conquests, but it exhibits within itself some forms decidedly in contrast with those which are found elsewhere. The distinctions of caste are carried to an unusual pitch. Before the enforcement of English law, if a cultivator (Tiyyan) or fisherman (Mukkava) touched one of the Náyars or Military class, the Náyar was considered justified in killing the person so touching him on the spot. The Paraiya class were in Malabar till lately little else than slaves. A class called Nayádis are excluded from all human intercourse, and forced to wander in unfrequented places, without means of support, except the alms of passengers. The Náyars themselves are a remarkable body. In the Hindu system they are classed as Súdras, though they rank immediately under the Bráhmans, the intermediate classes being here wanting. Indeed they are manifestly equal in dignity with the Kshatriyas of North-Western India. Their most peculiar characteristic consists in the arrangements with regard to females. These are married at ten years of age, and have an aliment transmitted to them by their husband, whom they must not however see or hold intercourse with; a single instance of such connection would be considered scandalous. They reside with their mother, and after her death with their brother; and they are allowed, and regard it an honour, to attract as many lovers as possible, provided they be of equal or superior rank. It is thus considered a ridiculous question to ask a Náyar who is his father. The only real parentage rests with the brother of the wife, whose children are considered as belonging to him, and to whom all his property and titles are transmitted; for the sister's children must be in one degree consanguineous, while the wife's children may not be in any. Another striking peculiarity on the Malabar coast consists in the early colonies of Christians and Jews, which still form a considerable part of its population. So numerous are the former, as to give Malabar in many quarters the appearance of a Christian country; they are computed on the whole at from 100,000 to 150,000.[1] They derive from a very well-known tradition the title of Christians of St. Thomas; their origin does not in reality appear to be much later than the apostolic age. Their original form of worship was not in accordance with the tenets of the Catholic church. The Portuguese, who at an early period became masters of this coast, considering such worship as heresy, compelled them to conform. The Malabar Christians could not, however, be induced to hear the service read in Latin; the Portuguese therefore conceded this point, and allowed the use of the Syriac. A species of Syro-Roman church was thus formed. The Jews of Malabar, who number only some 1,300, are divided into 'white' and 'black,' forming quite distinct classes; the white consider the other as comparatively low and impure. In A.D. 490 they obtained the gift of the city of Kranganúr; but, having incurred the hostility of a neighbouring rájá, this settlement was broken up and dispersed. The black Jews have been supposed by some to be Hindu converts; but it is probable that they were an earlier race of Jews from Palestine. Both tribes possess Hebrew manuscripts of the old Testament, which appear to be preserved in a state of tolerable purity.

8. In surveying this coast in somewhat greater detail, the first tract met is Canara, which extends along the sea about 200 miles. The northern part, now in the Bombay territory, is very hilly, and produces chiefly teakwood; but the southern, a portion of which is called by the natives Tuluva, is well cultivated and exports large quantities of rice. Hindus of the peculiar sect called the Jains abound in the country. There are also a considerable number of Christians; but the sea-coast is mostly occupied by a class of Muhammadans called Máppillas, apparently emigrants from Arabia. Through their means Haidar and Típú were complete masters of Canara, and the latter carried on a violent persecution against the professors of all other religions. After the fall of Típú however in 1799,

[1] According to the recent census, the Christians in Malabar *proper* number 47,631, while the other west coast divisions are populated as follows:—South Canara (71,259), Cochin (173,831) and Travancore (526,911).

Canara was annexed to the British dominions and toleration was restored. South Canara alone now belongs to this presidency. The principal city of Canara is Mangalore, long a flourishing emporium. It suffered in the war between the Mysore sovereigns and the British Government. Being taken by the British in 1733, it was defended with extraordinary valour against the whole force of Típú. In the following year it was surrendered by treaty to that ruler, who then dismantled the fortifications. Since coming under British dominion Mangalore has flourished, and carries on a very large export of rice. It is situated on a backwater forming a common estuary to two rivers, one of which is to its north and the other to its south. The port will not admit vessels drawing more than ten feet of water; but the anchorage at the mouth of the river is good.

9. Proceeding southwards, the next district is that of Malabar proper, which occupies about 200 miles of coast, and contains upwards of 2,600,000 inhabitants. The soil immediately along the shore is poor and sandy; but in the interior it consists of hills, the sides of which are formed into terraces, with fertile valleys interposed. Pepper, abundantly raised in the hill-forests of this country, forms the staple of a very extensive foreign trade. Calicut, which first gave to Da Gama an idea of the splendour of Indian cities, was the residence of the Zamorin, whose empire then extended wide along Malabar. Its power was materially broken by unsuccessful contest with the Portuguese, and towards the close of the last century was finally destroyed by the invasions of Haidar and Típú. In the struggle which terminated in the downfall of the latter, Britain derived some aid from the native chiefs, who in return, were invested with the internal jurisdiction of the country subject to the payment of a regular tribute. Between powers placed in so delicate a relation dissensions soon arose; the conflict terminated in favour of the British, who assumed the uncontrolled dominion of the country, its territory being annexed to this presidency. The Zamorin is now a stipendiary of the Madras Government. Calicut, the once important capital of Malabar, was entirely destroyed by Típú; but, as soon as British ascendency permitted, the inhabitants animated by that local attachment which is strong in India hastened to return. It is now a large place with an improving trade. The most remarkable modern city, however, has been Cannanore, formerly the seat of a female ruler called the Bíbí, and from its almost impregnable position regarded as the main hold of the Máppillas or Muhammadans of Malabar. The Bíbí was till lately allowed to administer Cannanore and the country in its immediate vicinity. She carried on also considerable mercantile transactions with Bengal and Arabia, and included in her sovereignty part of the Laccadives, an archipelago of low shoaly islets, facing the coast of Malabar at the distance of from 75 to 150 miles. They, however, produce nothing but coir, yarn and plantains, and are inhabited by poor Máppillas fishermen. Tellicherry, long the principal English settlement and seat of trade contains many rich merchants. At the capture in 1793 of Mahé, then the principal French settlement, the preference was given to that place, which has the advantage of a particularly fine situation; but on its subsequent rendition it decayed.

10. South of Malabar proper is the small province of Cochin, which presents the same general aspect as the rest of the coast, and particularly abounds in teak timber. The Jewish and Christian colonies are very numerous in this territory. Cochin the capital was the first point at which the Portuguese were allowed to erect a fort. In 1663 it was taken by the Dutch, and was rendered by them one of the most flourishing cities of India. The Rájá has maintained his independence better than most Hindu princes. He was merely tributary to Típú, and has been allowed by the English to carry on the internal affairs of his state, though under payment of tribute. Cochin still enjoys a considerable trade. Ten miles to the north is Kranganúr, which the Portuguese have made the seat of a Bishop's see.

11. The extended line of coast from Cochin to Cape Comorin is occupied by the dominions of the Mahárája of Travancore. They possess all the advantages peculiar to the Malabar Coast. The inland districts, in particular, are remarkable for fertility and beauty. They exhibit a varied scene, consisting of hills clothed with lofty forests, and of winding streams with valleys clad in perpetual verdure. The woods are perfumed with numberless aromatic plants. Besides the

staple article of pepper, Travancore yields ginger, turmeric and inferior species of nutmeg and cinnamon. The Travancore Mahárája, like the Cochin Rájá, conducts the internal affairs of his dominions, subject to the advice of the British representative under a treaty of 1805. Travancore, the ancient capital, was situated somewhat up the country in a soil of white sand; but it is much decayed since the Mahárája removed to Padmanábhapuram and subsequently to a new palace built on the European model at Trivandrum. Alleppi, Quilon and Koláchel afford convenient havens for trade, though the strong currents which run along the coast render navigation difficult.

12. At the extreme point of the territory of Travancore is situated Cape Comorin, the southern boundary of India. A few miles from this stands the southernmost scarp of the Western Gháts, a bold and commanding feature, which presents to the ocean a lofty hill covered with the most brilliant verdure. The rocks scattered along the shore of the cape render it necessary for the navigator to keep at a distance.

13. The same, the Carnatic.—After turning Cape Comorin the extensive territory is reached to which Europeans have given the name of Carnatic. It stretches about 500 miles along the coast, stopping somewhat short of the great natural boundary of the Kistna. It is divided into two parts by the chain of the Eastern Gháts, running like the Western parallel to the coast. One of these divisions is called the Carnatic above and the other the Carnatic below the gháts; but the former is better known under the title of Mysore, and the territory on the coast will be here considered as the proper Carnatic. It is called also the coast of Coromandel; and, though in its general structure similar to Malabar, presents some marked differences. The mountains are distant from the sea fifty, seventy, or a hundred miles; and, instead of being clothed with vast and majestic woods, are in most places naked and rocky. The region is watered by several great rivers, rising in the Western Gháts, and running across the whole peninsula; among which the Cauvery stands pre-eminent. Upon the whole, however, instead of numberless torrents dashing down the sides of the hills, and requiring only to be confined and guided, this tract contains large arid plains, to which the industrious husbandman can with difficulty by canals and tanks convey the necessary moisture. The gháts also from their great altitude intercept the heavy rains which the monsoon brings on the western coast; and there are only occasional showers, from May to June, to fertilize the ground and cool the intensity of the heat. Hence the Carnatic, in seasons of drought, is subject to severer famines than any other part of India. Yet, though there are many barren tracts, the country, on the whole, is highly cultivated and very productive. The population of the Carnatic is essentially Hindu. The tide of Muhammadan conquest did not reach it before the fourteenth century; nor was the subjection nearly complete until the reign of Aurangzeb. A race of Mughal viceroys was then established at Arcot, who on the fall of the empire set up an independent power. Pressed however by the overwhelming force of the Rájás of Mysore, they were forced to ask for British aid. The Company readily interposed, and after a long and severe struggle subverted the throne of Haidar and Típú. The Nawáb, however, was unable to maintain his position. On the death of the reigning Nawáb in 1801, his successor was made to sign a treaty by which the sovereignty of all his territories was transferred to the Company: and there was reserved to himself only from two to three lakhs of pagodas, and a portion of household lands. The country was then divided into eight districts or collectorships administered by British officers. Arcot and its immediate vicinity is chiefly peopled by Musalmáns; and on the southern part of the coast there are emigrants from Arabia, though not in so great numbers as on the Malabar coast. The rest of the population is Hindu, and the customs and religion of this native race have been preserved here in unusual purity. The pagodas are extremely numerous, and rival in splendour those of the sacred cities of Benares and Allahábád. The Bráhmans, not generally oppressed as elsewhere under Muhammadan ascendency, had entrusted to them by that government most of the civil employments in the state and revenue. Another class, almost peculiar to this part of the country, was formerly that of the 'pálegárs.' Originally district officers of the old Náyak and British Governments, they took advantage of the periods of weakness of the latter, and erected castles from which like the baronial chiefs of Europe in the feudal ages

they plundered and oppressed the surrounding country. The English Government were often obliged to purchase their orderly behaviour by giving them an independent power and jurisdiction. There is no class whose subjection proved so expensive to Great Britain. The Carnatic is much more of a manufacturing country than Malabar; yet it does not produce those fine fabrics which distinguish the Northern Circars. Piece-goods, blue cloths, chintzes, &c., all of a coarser kind, are its principal products.

14. A detailed survey of the Carnatic may begin with Madras, now its capital, and that of the British possessions on the eastern coast. The choice of a capital, as in many other countries, has not been so happy as that made by the French; Pondicherry being in every way a naturally finer and more convenient station. Madras has had till very recently no harbour; but a mere road, through which runs a strong current, and which is often exposed to dangerous winds. On the beach breaks so strong and continual a surf, that only a peculiar species of large light boats, the thin planks of which are sewed together with the tough grass of the country, can by the dexterous management of the natives be rowed across it. For minor communications with the shipping and for deep sea-fishing the natives of the coast employ what is called a catamaran, consisting merely of two planks fastened together, with which they encounter the roughest seas with wonderful address, regaining it by swimming when swept off by the waves. Fort St. George, planned by Mr. Robins, a celebrated engineer, and placed at a small distance from the sea, was once regarded as a strong and handsome fortress, though not on so great a scale as Fort William at Calcutta; but more advantageously situated however, and defensible by a smaller number of men. European Madras is for the most part an assemblage of country houses situated in the midst of gardens and scattered over an extent of several miles. The houses are light and elegant, having columns covered with the fine composition of shell limestone called chunam. The hand of art has covered with verdure a somewhat arid soil. The Black Town is extensive, and its minarets and pagodas, mixed with trees and gardens, are striking from a distance; but the interior is poor. In the vicinity of Madras is the district of Chingleput, originally obtained as a jágír from the Mughal, and still kept up as a distinct collectorship. Though the soil is generally dry, it is made by industry to yield tolerable crops of rice. The town of Chingleput is somewhat inland and not of much importance though the seat of a sub-collectorate. About thirty-five miles to the south of Madras is Mahábalipur, or the city of the Great Bali, called also the Seven Pagodas. It consists of a range of sculptured edifices representing the exploits of Bali, Krishna, and other chiefs celebrated in the Mahábhárata. It is sacred to Vishnu, a colossal image of whom is found in the principal temple. The monuments, though not on the same gigantic scale as in some other parts of India, are well executed. In the interior of the country is the hill temple of Tirupati, one of the most crowded scenes of Hindu pilgrimage.

15. Proceeding southwards Pondicherry is reached, the seat of French Empire in India. This empire, founded in 1749 by M. Dupleix, presented for some time a brilliant aspect, and seconded by native alliances threatened to subvert the foundations of the British power in the East. Towards the close of the war of 1756 Pondicherry fell into the hands of the British; and, though restored by subsequent treaties, never on the renewal of war made any effectual resistance. Pondicherry was raised by the French from a village to be the handsomest European city in India. It contains many fine houses in the European style; and the high culture of the vicinity, the numerous canals crossed by neatly constructed bridges, the roads planted with trees and partly adorned by statues, give to the surrounding district the appearance of a great garden. The inhabitants have suffered much by repeated hostilities, and being unfavourably situated for trade have been unable entirely to retrieve their affairs. In trade Pondicherry was at one time surpassed by Cuddalore, a well-built town at the mouth of a considerable river. In war Cuddalore has followed the fortunes of Pondicherry, though its capture in 1783 was not effected without very great loss on the part of the British.

16. The Kingdom of Tanjore was formerly an important territory, consisting of the delta of the Cauvery. The Hindus attach to its stream a peculiarly sacred character. At Trichinopoly, about 100 miles above the sea, it separates into two

great branches, one retaining the original name and another called Coleroon. Numerous channels derived from these convert the region into a delta, not surpassed by any part of Egypt or Bengal in culture and fertility. Art has been industriously employed to improve these natural advantages. The chief produce consists of rice, grain and cocoanuts, which are largely exported. The population introduced by Mughal conquest has never reached Tanjore, and almost the only Muhammadans consist of a few refugees from Arabia. This country therefore has retained almost entire the ancient religion, constitution and manners of India. It is particularly distinguished by the splendour of its pagodas and other edifices destined to religious worship. Tanjore was governed by an independent rájá until 1799, when the British caused him to resign the administration, accepting a revenue of a lakh of pagodas, or 3½ lakhs of rupees, with one-fifth of the net revenue of the country. He was also permitted, in time of peace only, to keep possession of the town and fortress of Tanjore. The city of Tanjore may be considered as the native capital of Southern India, and the rival of Benares in learning, splendour, and antiquity. Its pagoda is greatly celebrated, rising from the ground by twelve successive stages, and considered the finest specimen of that species of structure existing in India. The usual Bráhman college is attached to it. The place is six miles in circumference, and contains two large and strong forts, the smallest of which is about a mile in circumference, surrounded with a broad and deep ditch, cut in the solid rock. In one of these forts is the pagoda, and in the other the palace of the rájá.

17. Trichinopoly is a large and strong city, farther up the Cauvery, and distinguished by being the residence of Muhammad Alí and his son, who under British protection reigned over the Carnatic. The siege of Trichinopoly in 1755 is celebrated in Indian history for the gallant defence made by British officers against the French and their native allies, which terminated in a great part of the former being obliged to surrender. Opposite to Trichinopoly is the large island of Srírangam (not to be confounded with the town of Seringapatam in Mysore), formed by the two branches of the river. It contains a pagoda pre-eminent in magnitude and sanctity, being about four miles in circumference, and surrounded by seven successive inclosures. The innermost shrine has never been violated by any hostile power. It is visited by crowds of penitents from all parts of Hindustán, who bestow gifts in return for the pardon of their sins.

18. Among the sea-ports of this region special mention may be made of Negapatam at the mouth of the Cauvery, once the chief factory of the Dutch on this coast, and made by them a strong and commercial place ; but it has declined in both these respects since it came under the power of Britain. At the mouth of one of the deltaic branches is Tranquebar, which the prudent conduct of the Danish Government converted from a small village to a thriving mart of trade. It is also the seat of an active mission, to which the public is indebted for some important memoirs relative to India. Dévakóttai, at the mouth of the Coleroon, was once a considerable British factory, and the first place in this neighbourhood where the British obtained a footing.

19. The districts of Madura, Dindigul and Tinnevelly, added to Travancore on the opposite coast, constitute the extreme south of India. They are inferior to Tanjore in natural fertility, and, as some consider, in cultivation. They are less copiously watered, and a not inconsiderable part of their surface is still covered with jungle, formerly the retreat of pálegárs, whose incursions disturbed the pursuits of industry. Cotton forms the staple product, particularly of Tinnevelly ; and a considerable quantity of coarse manufactures is transmitted to Madras. The capitals of the same name are not of particular magnitude or importance, and in their situation and structure strength was mainly studied ; but since the country has attained a more settled state, their fortifications have fallen into decay. Madura is a very ancient city, which is regarded by the Hindus as peculiarly sacred. It has a pagoda or temple much more than commensurate to the greatness of the city, and one of the most splendid in Southern India.

20. The northern part of the Carnatic still remains to be mentioned. It is generally inferior to the southern, and yields no remarkable product, either of land or manufacture. Arcot, nearly in a direct line inland from Madras, was raised to

high importance by the Mughal government, who attracted by its salubrity made it their capital. It is situated however in a barren country, and is surrounded by naked granite hills. Pulicat, close to the sea and with a port, after enjoying for a long time high prosperity as the chief seat of Dutch commerce on the Coromandel coast under the name of Geldria, has since it came under the power of the British declined to the position of an inconsiderable village. There was formerly trade here with Penang. Nellore on the large river Penneru formerly exported blue chintzes for the use of the negroes on West Indian plantations, but this trade has ceased. There is an anicut across the river close to the town, which has supplied the delta south of the river with irrigation for many years; and there is another new anicut now constructed at Sangam, 20 miles west of Nellore, which will perform the same service for the delta north of the river. The whole of this coast is engaged in the salt industry. The country adjoining Nellore has, on the last decade been opened out by rail-road communications.

21. The same, the Konga Country.—Under no other title can be designated the two districts of Salem and Coimbatore, which interpose between the Western Gháts and the Eastern Carnatic to the south of Mysore; for there is no modern name indicating the whole of this country. The ancient kingdom bearing this name disappeared from history eight or nine centuries after the commencement of the Christian era. The Salem district includes a northern and eastern portion once called the Bárámahál or twelve estates, and a remainder consisting of country lying on and lying below the Mysore plateau. The East India Company sought to convert the town of Salem into a manufacturing centre, and a large weaving industry remains to this day. The climate of Salem town is not considered healthy, being liable to sudden alternations of heat and cold ranging up to 25°. This district is the principal seat of the manufacture of Indian steel or wootz. The ore is exposed and needs no mining. The antiquity of the process of manufacture is no less astonishing than its ingenuity, for its theory is extremely erudite, and in its discovery there seems but little room for the agency of chance. There is no evidence that any nation of antiquity except the Hindus were acquainted with the art of manufacturing steel. The forests of the district cover a fourth of its area, and their development for the purposes of fuel will make this into an iron-producing country. Above the town of Salem tower the Shevaroy Hills. The name of the old Konga kingdom survives in Kángayam in the adjoining Coimbatore district. The fauna of Southern India abound in this part of the country. The town of Coimbatore lies high and is a favourite station with Europeans. On the western confines of this district lie the Nílgiri Hills, the largest hill-plateau in India that has been permanently occupied by Europeans.

22. The same, the Northern Circars.—The old province of Orissa to the east of Gondwána in the Central Indian tableland occupied the whole sea-coast of the southern peninsula from the Carnatic to Bengal. The interior of the country, traversed by a portion of the great chain of the gháts, is still more rugged than the tableland to the west of it; it is covered with jungle and infested by hill fever. Various rude tribes have from time immemorial inhabited these wild recesses. They rendered themselves formidable to the Maráthás; but the influence of British law has converted them into more or less peaceable subjects. The three great rivers, the Mahánadí, Gódávari and Kistna discharge themselves into the sea; the first towards the northern, and the two latter at the southern extremity of this country. The tract which has been known as the Circars, and which is the only part of Orissa now assigned to Madras, comprises that southern portion of it which was never securely held by the original Hindu kingdom. The littoral of the Northern Circars is one of the most valuable districts in Hindustán; equal to the Carnatic in fertility, and formerly at least superior to it in manufacturing industry. It is remarkable also as being the first territory of any considerable extent which came under the dominion of the East India Company. The French in 1759 having been driven from Masulipatam, Lord Clive obtained from the Mughal the grant of the territory; and the Nizám, though then in actual possession, was not in a condition to dispute the transaction. The internal government has not been materially altered, the villages being ruled according to their ancient institutions; but the power of the zámíndars, the principal of whom at the first occupation could

assemble 41,000 troops, has been greatly broken. Calicoes and chintzes were once the staple manufacture, the finest being produced in the delta of the Gódávari. These manufactures were exported to Europe and various parts of the East, but particularly to Persia, where the demand for them was most extensive. Modern competition however on the part of Bombay and England has gone far to destroy the industries. The principal exports now are in natural products. The Circars were under the Musalmán government five in number: Guntúr or Murtazánagar, Kondapalle or Mustafánagar, Ellore, Rajahmundry and Chicacole; with the coast strip of Masulipatam added. But this nomenclature has been altered by the modern distribution of revenue districts. The important trade of this tract used to centre almost entirely in Masulipatam, a large sea-port with the best harbour in the whole coast from Cape Comorin. More than half of its exports were to Bussora, the rest chiefly to Madras, which it supplied with a considerable quantity of grain. This place, however, has in its turn lost its natural advantages, and has been replaced by Cocanada which has canal communication with the deltas of the Gódávari and Kistna rivers. The old district of Cuttack, now Cuttack and Purí, traversed by the lower Mahánadí connects the Circars with Bengal. Cuttack the capital situated on a broad channel of the Mahánadí, is a town of importance garrisoned by the troops of this presidency. But the most remarkable place within the district is the holy land of Jagannáth, which comprises a circuit of fifteen miles, and is known to story as the strange scene of Indian fanaticism.

23. THE SAME, THE CEDED DISTRICTS.—These will complete the account of the presidency. They form the Bálághát or highlands of the old Hindu Vijayanagar kingdom, as opposed to the Payan Ghát or Talaghát or lowlands of the same, already described above under the title of Carnatic. In the concluding years of the eighteenth century French alternated with English troops in the support of the Nizám at his capital. But in 1798 the Earl of Mornington finally established there a British force, and in 1800 at the conclusion of the third Mysore war the most southerly of the Nizám's territories lying below the Tungabhadra river were assumed by the British as payment for that force then largely increased and declared to be stationed in the dominions in perpetuity. Thus a large tract of country was added to the British possessions in the south, which carried their power from the coast to the centre of the peninsula. The native state of Mysore was at the same time encircled. The character of this country does not differ materially from that of the Deccan plateau. Bellary the most westerly of the provinces, and including at that time what are now Anantapur and Kurnool districts, is throughout a highland; the most elevated part being to the west where the surface rises towards the culminating range of the Western Gháts, and to the south where it rises to the tableland of Mysore. Towards the centre of the country the plateau presents a monotonous and almost treeless extent, bounded by the horizon. Water is scarce, and fodder difficult to be procured. The present district of Kurnool lies to the east of Bellary. Two long mountain ranges, the Nallamalais and the Yerramalais, extend parallel to one another north and south through it. The central portion consists of a valley of black-cotton soil, while the western portion forms part of the Mysore plateau. Anantapur south-east of Bellary was once the western limit of the real Canarese country. Cuddapah is the eastern division of the Ceded Districts, and its most mountainous part. The Nallamalai Hills separate ten miles from Cuddapah into two ranges, one running north-east towards the Tirupati Hill with peaks rising to a height of 3,500 feet above sea-level, and the other having a winding course intersected at Gandikóta by a remarkable chasm 200 feet in depth through which the Pennéru river flows. The town of Cuddapah is situated in a depression, and the eastern part of the district is much lower than the western. The climate of the principal town itself shows great heat during the day and oppressive closeness and stagnation of air during the night; and from these conditions of the atmosphere results its enervating influence on the European constitution.

CHAPTER II.

HISTORICAL SUMMARY.

HISTORY.

1. Introduction.—In any enumeration which may be made of the literature proper to this country, one capital defect must be obvious, that history finds in it no place. The legends of Indian mythology may be plausibly supposed to have a foundation in the story of some celebrated early kings or conquerors, but it is scarcely possible through the mist of fable even to conjecture anything respecting the real existence of these personages or the events connected with them. The Grecian Iliad and Odyssey are in comparison with Hindu legends plain and authentic chronicles. Indian chronology, like that of the Greeks, is divided into four ages, of which three are fabulous; and the first consists of nearly 2,000,000 years. The professed English historians, with the exception perhaps of one writer Colonel Meadows Taylor, have treated the subject of South Indian history for any other period than that connected with British rule with much indifference. The Muhammadan historians have confined themselves to their own period, and the records of Golconda and Bijápur scarcely touch this Presidency. The Mahávansa of Ceylon deals with India but incidentally. Antiquarian research is only now beginning to find means of supplementing the deficiency caused by the absence of materials constructed or collected by usual historic methods. These results are specially to be regretted, as without doubt the population who have for many ages occupied this portion of the peninsula are a great people, influencing the world not much perhaps by moral and intellectual attributes, but to a great extent by superior physical qualities. A celebrated historian writing in 1841 says that the history of the Deccan is less obscure than that of the rest of Hindustán, but also less interesting. Further knowledge does not confirm the latter remark.

2. The three Periods preceding the earliest known Dravidian Dynasties.—The history proper of the south of India may be held to begin with the Hindu dynasties formed by a more or less intimate mixture of the Aryan and Dravidian systems of government. But, prior to that, three stages of historical knowledge are recognizable; first as to such aboriginal period as there may have been prior to the Dravidian, secondly as to the Dravidian period proper, and thirdly as to the period when the Aryans had begun to impose their religión and customs upon the Dravidians; but the time indicated by the early dynasties had not yet been reached.

3. The most ancient facts regarding Southern India are remarkable. Geology and natural history alike make it certain that at a time within the bounds of human knowledge this country did not form part of Asia. A large southern continent of which this country once formed part has even been assumed as necessary to account for the different circumstances. The Sanskrit Puránic writers, the Ceylon Buddhists, and the local traditions of the West Coast, all indicate in different manners a great disturbance of the point of the peninsula and Ceylon within recent times. The date given by English theólogians to the Noachian deluge is 2348 B.C., and that given by the Ceylon Buddhists to the latest submergence in the region of Ceylon is 2387 B.C. The two dates cannot have been arrived at with mutual knowledge. Investigations in relation to race show it to be by no means impossible that Southern India was once the passage-ground by which the ancient progenitors of northern and Mediterranean races proceeded to the parts of the globe which they now inhabit. Human remains and traces have been found on the East Coast of an age which is

indeterminate but quite beyond the ordinary calculations of history. They are material here in so far as they are connected with the question whether there was or was not a population of Southern India earlier than the Dravidian. All enquiries connected with populations show the impossibility of assuming any anterior limit in such series. At the same time there is for practical purposes no evidence of any earlier population in the present instance. In this part of the world, as in others, antiquarian remains show the exiseence of peoples who used successively implements of unwrought stone, of wrought stone, and of metal fashioned in the most primitive manner. These tribes have also left cairns and stone circles indicating burial-places. It has been usual to set these down as earlier than Dravidian. But the hill Kurumba of the Palmanér plateau, who are only a detached portion of the oldest known Tamilian population, erect dolmens to this day. The sepulchral urns of Tinnevelly may be earlier than Dravidian, or they may be Dravidian. It has been alleged that the Kolarian races of the north-eastern part of the peninsula, whom various considerations show to be in a measure more primitive than the Dravidian races, preceded them in Southern India. This is not demonstrable. The two sets of races are more probably parallel and allied. It has been stated that the wild tribes of Southern India itself are physiologically of an earlier type than the Dravidian tribes. This position has been found not to be proved, the conclusions being of a negative nature. The evidence of the grammatical structure of language is to be relied on as a clearly distinctive mark of a population, but from this point of view it appears that there are more signs of the great lapse of time than of previous populations. The grammar of the south of India is exclusively Dravidian and bears no trace of ever having been anything else. The hill, forest, and paraiya tribes use the Dravidian forms of grammar and inflection. However much of the stock of any previous aborigines may remain under the laws of descent or intermixture, by the most precise of the language tests they must be regarded as having been obliterated. The vocabulary alone of the rude dialects may yet be found to give traces of ancient pre-Dravidian languages. The worship of serpents, and that mysterious form of combined worship addressed to trees and serpents together, pertains probably rather to Mongolian races than to the Dravidian races proper. It has undoubtedly prevailed in Southern India, and if this has been so generally and not sporadically it is an argument for the existence of populations prior to the Dravidian. The worship of serpents, living and in effigy, still survives. The habits and customs of the people exhibit that most remarkable breach between one section of the population and another which is expressed by the terms "Hindu" and "out-caste." This may be a religious or caste distinction effected by Bráhmanical influence. It may indicate an essential difference of race. The social breach is so wide as to furnish the strongest argument that exists for regarding certain tribes as earlier than the Dravidian in their origin. Polyandry, the most noticeable social peculiarity of Southern India, belongs as much to the Dravidians as to any other race. As regards native chronology it need only be said that the local traditions of the oldest portion of Chera Mandalam or south Travancore make the Dravidian dynasty of that country coeval with the origin of the world. The arguments have been stated for considering that there was a population earlier than, and distinct from, the Dravidians. It will be seen that history is almost silent on the subject.

4. The Dravidians, a very primeval race, take by no means a low place in the conjectural history of humanity. They have affinities with the Australian aborigines, which would probably connect their earliest origin with that people. But they have emerged from the lower type, and acquired characteristics putting them at no great distance in the physiological scale from the later developed Semitic and Caucasian races. As now known they are not straight-haired like the Malays and Mongolians, but more or less curly-haired like both of the last-named. The theory that they came to India from without, passing over the north-west boundary and through Scinde, does not rest on sufficient evidence. This movement appears to have been the characteristic of much later races. If the Dravidians moved into India at all, it may more reasonably be conjectured that they came from the south or the east. As far as present evidence goes however they are indigenous to India, and perhaps specially indigenous to Southern India.

The Dravidian terms indicating direction, which must be very primitive, are derived from the configuration of the southern peninsula. The east is கிழக்கு (kizhakku) or "down," and the west is மேற்கு (merku) or "up;" that is to say the country sloping to the coast and the country rising to the Western Gháts. The Dravidians may have been at first nomads in India. Numerous local traditions testify to minor migrations. The Greeks knew one small section of the race as σῶραι νομάδες still in their own day. As to their language, no other is known to which it can be affiliated. The attempt even to group it with the imperfectly defined Turanian tongues is not satisfactory. It stands alone, without any immediate predecessor. In origin it must be long anterior to the Sanskrit, which has subsequently played so important a political part with regard to it. Its original strength is shown by the great persistence of its grammatical formations through all the vicissitudes of history. The early Dravidians probably had for religion a worship of the spirits of ancestors, coupled with that of hostile demoniac personages of other and various descriptions. When religious observances developed they appear to have taken the form of the sacrifice of living animals, and those peculiar rites of devil-priests which have been elsewhere described. But at all stages religion is composite. It is stated that கோ (ko) means the deity and கோவில் (kovil) or 'temple' means the house of the deity. But that these meanings are primitive requires verification. கோ means originally ruler, and கோவில் a ruler's residence. No traces exist of any early worship paid to a supreme deity. The Dravidians had no priesthood. The Bráhmanical writers of later days described the Dravidians as mountaineers, foresters, monsters, and even goblins; an account which must be taken with considerable qualifications. Rávana when attacked by Ráma was the ruler of a powerful and civilized state, which embraced not only the island of Ceylon, but the whole of the southern division of the peninsula; and his subjects appear to have been in some respects as advanced in civilization as the colonists. The fishermen of the south, dependent on the moon's phases for their operations, early developed a primitive lunar computation of time. The agriculturists of the plains observed the seasons and the movements of the sun. The astronomy of the Dravidians thence arising was first lunar and then strictly solar-sidereal. The vocabulary and institutions of the people show that they had a highly developed practical astronomy before they were touched by Bráhmanical influences, and their system still holds its ground in many respects. The Jovian cycle of five revolutions of Jupiter or sixty years, which regulates the chronology of the Tamilians, is no part of the Aryan system. The familiar period of twelve years for domestic events among the Tamils has the same derivation, and is similarly independent. The religious festivals which are proper to the Tamilians can be called fixed, varying only with the fluctuations between diurnal and solar time, and differing from the Hindu festivals which vary extensively under the lunar-sidereal system of the Indian Aryans. The Dravidians knew all the ordinary metals indigenous to the country. Spinning, weaving and dyeing were common arts. Medicine was systematically practised. They possessed considerable constructive, if not architectural, power. The Amarávati Stúpa and the rock-cut temples at Mahábalipur may have been produced in later ages under Bráhmanical or Buddhist influence, but they are a development of strictly indigenous art. The date of the Vattezhuttu alphabet is not known, but it appears to be very primitive, and no direct connection has been found between it and those alphabets which are of northern origin. The literature of the Tamils where not anterior to Aryan influences was at least developed in complete independence of them. Some of the most esteemed of the old writers were of the paraiya tribe. Much of the old literature also may have disappeared. Writing was effected by a style on palmyra leaves and a bundle of these leaves was called a book. The numerical system of the Dravidians was adequate and extended to a hundred if not to a thousand. In abstract ideas and philosophy alone they were deficient. In fine the Dravidians were a practical people, with considerable resources. In matters of Government they were, unless in their very earliest stages, under a monarchical system, with defined areas of country for the exercise of rule.

5. About 2,000 or 3,000 years B.C., perhaps at the beginning of what has been styled the Kaliyuga or 3101 B.C., the Sanskrit-speaking Aryans came into India from their original home at the sources of the Oxus in the neighbourhood of Bokhara,

where they had resided till the period when the Iranic branch of the tribe went to the south-west, and the Indic branch went to the south-east. The Indic branch of the Aryans advanced down the basins of the Indus and the Ganges to the estuary of both rivers; and then proceeded by different routes into the lower and middle range of the Himálaya, up the valley of Assam, down the coast of the Bay of Bengal as far as Chicacole in the Ganjám District, across the rivers Narbdá and Mahánadí into Central India, and along the west coast as far south as Goa. Another portion of the same branch went by sea to Ceylon, and laid the foundation of the Singhalese civilization. A third went by sea to Java, and did the same in that island; a remnant of this section of the Aryan race existing to the present day in the Island of Baly east of Java. Remains of the original Aryan race itself are said to survive in Kashmír. The Vedic hymns record the progress of the Aryans in this advance into India. The earlier hymns disclose them still to the north of the Kháibar Pass; the later hymns show them arrived at the Ganges. Their first settlement in India was in a strip of country, not more than 60 miles long by 20 miles broad, situated in the country of the Seven Rivers, now part of the Punjab. The poem of the Rámáyana describes them as having extended eastwards as far as Ayodhyá or Oudh, and Manu at a later date speaks of them as spreading through the Madhyadesa, that is to say the middle-land, or as far southwards as the Vindhyas. The date of the first settlement of the Aryans in Southern India was more obscure than that of the first arrival of Aryans in India. The date of the events recorded in the Rámáyana may be about 2,000 years B.C. The Taittiríya Upanishad says that the unbounded south was given to Yajurveda, meaning that the followers of that Veda were the first to penetrate there, and showing that the southward movement began a considerable time before it was written. This Upanishad itself must date several centuries before the Christian era. The colonization of Ceylon by Vijaya, an Aryan from the north-east coast, is a later event, but may not represent the first visit of the Aryans to that island. The date of the first permanent intercourse between the Aryans and the Dravidians was antecedent to the era of the Greek traders, for then the greater part of the country had been already bráhmanized, and many places were known at any rate to the Bráhmans by Sanskrit names. As far as is actually known from direct evidence the first Aryans who settled permanently in the south were hermits, who by civilizing the people round about them gradually opened a pathway for more effectual invasions. The most prominent name among these ascetics is that of Agastya, who is celebrated for the influence he acquired at the Court of Kulasekhara according to tradition an early Pándyan king. He is called the Tamizh Muni, or Tamilian sage. The mountain from which the Parni or Sanskrit Támraparni takes its rise is still known as Agastya's hill. The Aryans in whatever numbers they may have come, abandoned their own language in Southern India in favor of the Dravidian languages, and at the outset at any rate modified to a great extent their own religion and customs. In Coorg there is no Bráhman influence even to the present day. The ascendency of the Bráhmans was brought about gradually and by the arts of peace; for if it had been effected by warlike means some traditions of the fact would have survived. There are however none such, and all existing traditions, and the names by which the Bráhmanical race is distinguished in Tamil, viz., ஐயர் (ayyar) or 'fathers' and பார்ப்பார் (párppár) or 'overseers,' point to power gained by means of administrative ability, rather than by violence. The history of the Aryan colonization of the south is little more than a history of religion, and manners and customs. These have already been illustrated.

6. THE EARLIEST KNOWN DRAVIDIAN DYNASTIES.—The occupants of the south of India were at the earliest period for which any records archæological or otherwise can be found, Dravidians ruled over by kings taken from the same stock as themselves. They were however to an extent which cannot be determined under the influence of Aryan settlers. It is almost certain that the only representatives of the Aryans were Bráhmans. These were probably located in the larger towns alone and came little into contact with the agricultural population. The Sanskrit names given to places existed probably in the Sanskrit writings only of the settlers. And the same may be said without hesitation for the Sanskrit names given to the Dravidian rulers, and derived for the most part from the Solar, Lunar, and

Agníkula families of the north. The Bráhmans were employed for their talents by the ruling families of the south. The tribes and dynasties of the Dravidians were extremely numerous. The Tamil country in the extreme south, to which the name of Dravida is alone strictly applicable, is traditionally divided between the three principal kingdoms or mandalams of Pándya, Chola and Chera. The west coast developed an independence. On the north-east, the kings of Kalinga at one time ruled over the entire line of seaboard from the Kistna to the Ganges. The eastern coast was occupied by a Pallava kingdom, which was perhaps almost as ancient as the southern kingdoms. But to these principal kingdoms might be added a great number of smaller kingdoms, according to the direction taken by topographical inquiry. The inhabitants of the three mandalams spoke the ancient Tamil language, and employed a written character known now by the name of Vattezhuttu; the origin of is this wrapped in mystery, but it did not proceed from Northern India. The most celebrated ancient Tamil literary works, as the Tolkáppiyam and the Kurral, were written in Vattezhuttu character. The West Coast nations spoke Malayálam, the North-East Coast nations spoke Telugu, and the inhabitants of the South Deccan spoke Kanarese. These are forms of the Dravidian language later than Tamil.

7. The Pándya kingdom as called by the Sanskrit writers, or the Pándi kingdom as called by the natives of the country, was the most prominent dynasty in the extreme south when the Aryans first made acquaintance with it. The Aryan visitors connected the name with the dynasty of the Pándavas of Hastinapuram near Delhi in error. Both it and the Parní river called by the Aryans Támraparní are probably derived from Tamil words meaning toddy or the juice of the palm. In a later edition of the Mahábhárata, it is stated that Arjuna, one of the five Pándava brothers, married a daughter of the Pándya king in the course of his wanderings; but this should be ascribed to poetic license. When the Dravidas are mentioned as distinct from the Cholas, as they sometimes are in the Mahábhárata and the Puránas, it may be assumed that the Pándyas are indicated. The earliest direct notice of the Pándi kingdom comes from the Ceylonese Maháyansa, from which it appears that Vijaya, the Aryan, after first marrying a 'yakshí' or demoness, that is to say a Singhalese of the country, obtained in marriage the daughter of the Pándi ruler of the opposite coast. The date given by the Mahávansa for Vijaya's arrival in Ceylon is 543 B.C. Northern Ceylon was then probably tributary to the Pándi king. Vijaya himself gave as yearly tribute two lakhs worth of chunks and pearls. The kingdom is mentioned by the name 'Páda' in Asoka's inscriptions, which are dated 260 B.C., together with the Cholas under the name of Chodas and the Chera ruler under the name of Keralaputra; but only the names are enumerated. Megasthenes, who was sent in 302 B.C. as ambassador from the court of Seleucus Nicator of Babylon, to Chandragupta, king of Pátaliputra, in connection with the affairs of the Indian empire, recorded the existence of a kingdom called πανδαία in the extreme south. He translated a Hindu legend on the subject of this country by saying that the Indian Hercules had a daughter called Pandaia whom he made its ruler. He spoke of pearls as the chief commodity of the country. By the Indian Hercules may be understood Siva, who by that time had been assigned by Bráhmanical writers at any rate as the prevailing deity of the south. In the reference to a female ruler, allusion is made to the polyandric system still remaining on the West Coast, under which inheritance is in the female line and the female members of ruling families assume a special dignity. Strabo in 20 A.D. gives an account of an embassy sent by the Pándyan ruler, probably from the West Coast, to the Emperor Augustus. Golden aurei of that emperor's coinage have been found on the West Coast. Pliny later in A.D. 77 calls these people the Pandae, and says that they were the only race in India ruled by women. Speaking of a portion of the West Coast, he states that it was then under the rule of the βασιλεὺς πανδίων 'far from his inland emporium at Modoura.' The Periplus of the Erythraean sea about 80 A.D. makes a similar remark, assigning Travancore, south of Alleppi at least, to Pándya. Though the people of this kingdom were called Pándis, the proper title of their ruler was not Pándyan but Máran. According to Tamil literature the boundaries of the Pándya kingdom were as follows. On the north the Pudukkóttai Vellár falling into the sea south of Point Calimere;

on the south Cape Comorin; on the east the sea (that is to say the Gulf of Manár and Palk's Strait); on the west according to some authorities 'the great plain' or "peruveli," according to others the town of Vannási, and according to others the great pass or "peruvazhi." The identification of "peruveli," Vannási and "peruvazhi" is not yet accomplished. Nor is it possible to say to what period this description of the poets refers. The most ancient capital of the Pándya country was Korkai (the *κόλχοι* of the Periplus) at the mouth of the Tambraparni river. Korkai was the seat of government in the time of Vijaya. It was esteemed even by the Greeks several centuries later as the first port in Southern India, and they named from it the *κόλπος κολχικός* or Gulf of Manár. As the point where the more modern Aryan and Grecian civilizations each in turn met the ancient Dravidian civilization, it is a place second in interest to none in India. It is now represented in name by an insignificant village five miles from the coast, but excavations in the neighbourhood show the remains of a once extensive area of human habitation. Even when Korkai being left inland owing to the deposits of the Tambraparni river gave place to Káyal, the latter port nearly monopolized the trade between Southern India and China and Arabia. Under the influence of modern coast changes the centre of commerce has again shifted, but only slightly more north to Tuticorin. The chief industry of Korkai was probably the pearl-fishery, and its chief commerce the export of rice; two causes sufficient to collect an important oriental population. The migratory habits of the pearl-oyster have rendered the South Indian fisheries precarious, and the failure of these may have led to the abandonment of the coast as the seat of the Pándyan Government. After Korkai there is some evidence that a place called in Sanskrit Kalyánapuram was made the capital; if so, its site cannot be identified. After this at any rate Madura (*μόδουρα* in the Greek) became the chief city, having been founded possibly about the end of the fourth century B.C. The site of even this city has probably been shifted more than once. Thus old Madura is on the north bank of the Vaigai, and about a mile from the present city which is on the south bank. A few miles to the east are the ruins of another ancient city, Manalúr, which it is supposed was also at one time the capital. The device of the house of Pándya was a fish. The Tamil legend is that Pándya, Chera, and Chola were founded by three brothers, who at first lived together at Korkai, near the mouth of the Tambraparni, and afterwards separated and founded different kingdoms. No legend gives the name of a king, but it is the Dravidian custom to call rulers by their title and not by any personal name. The Sthalapurána or local chronicle of Madura gives a list of 73 kings of an old and original Pándyan dynasty with information belonging thereto. The names are all Sanskrit, and the natives of the country have had no share in the preparation of these documents. If any distinction is to be drawn between the titles Máran and Pándyan, it is that the latter began to be used after Madura had become the seat of government. The last ruler of the old dynasty was known to the Tamils as Kún or the hunchback. For the purposes of the history of the earliest period it is sufficient to state that the Pándyans were constantly at war with the Cholas lying on their north-eastern border, but were usually at peace with their neighbours to the west; facts for which the geography of the country will account. In the early ages of the Christian era again they formed an alliance with the Cholas, which lasted for a while, till hostilities were resumed. The Pándyans retained the old Vattezhuttu written character till a very late period, probably till the eleventh century of this era. One of the oldest segments of the Tamil race are the Marava race, who once boasted a dynasty of their own, north of the Vaigai river and interposed between the Pándis and the Cholans in the neighbourhood of the coast. In the earliest times they were tributary to Pándya.

8. The original meaning of the Tamil name Chola, properly Chozham, is southern. Cholamandalam or the realm of the Cholas is held to be the origin of the term Coromandel applied by foreigners to the peninsular shore of the Bay of Bengal. The word Chola appears in numerous names of places, a familiar example of which is Shoranúr. As above mentioned the Asoka inscriptions speak of the Cholas under the name of Chodas. Ptolemy and the Periplus speak of *σῶραι νομάδες*, the wandering Cholas; *ἀρκάτου βασίλειον σῶρα*, Chola the capital of Arcatus; *ὀρθοῦρα βασίλειον σώρναγος*, Orthoura the capital of Sornax; *παραλία σωρητῶν*, the

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coast of the Soretes. The word appears here in different forms. The wandering Cholas were the Kurumba shepherds. The name of a ruler Arcatus may be erroneous, having however some connection with the town Arcot or other place similarly designated. Arcot means "six forests." Sornax is "Chola Náyak" or Chola ruler. Orthoura is Oraiyúr, literally "the town of habitation," otherwise called Kozhi; a suburb of Trichinopoly. The portions of the coast are named in the Greek writers after the tribes in the neighbourhood. According to the stanzas of Avvaiyár the ordinary boundaries of the Chola kingdom were on the north the Ponnaiyár river falling into the sea near Cuddalore, on the south the Pudukkóttai Vellár, on the east the sea or Bay of Bengal, and on the west the Eastern Gháts. Pugazhandi and Kamban give Ízham as the northern boundary, which has yet to be identified. This excludes the subsequent acquisitions; namely the subordinate kingdom of Tondainád or Tondaimandalam, and distant and temporary conquests. With Tondaimandalam the kingdom extended north beyond Tirupati and in still more recent times it was pushed far into the Telugu countries. The Chola kingdom thus lay to the north-east of the Pándyan kingdom. The capital was first Oraiyúr above mentioned, secondly Kumbakónam, thirdly a place called Gangaikandapuram, near the present Trichinopoly, and finally Tanjore. The Chola banner had a tiger on it. The Bráhman legend is that an Aryan settler from Oudh founded the kingdom. The story is however unreasonable on the theory here taken of the Dravidian kingdoms. All tradition points to the Chola kingdom as being of the same age as the Pándyan. The Cholas were constantly at war with the Pándyans and also with Ceylon. Their early history however is almost a complete blank; and there is not even a list of kings, real or imaginary, as there is in the case of the Pándyans. The Cholas first came into prominent historic notice at a much later period, or about the 11th century of the Christian era. The evidence derivable from the written characters in inscriptions is that the Cholas were among the first of the Dravidian nations to adopt a northern alphabet in supersession of the native Vattezhuttu. Their later alphabet was a form of Grantha, which came through the Chera alphabet from the alphabet known as the Cave form of Southern Asoka.

9. The name Chera like Pándya means, in ancient Tamil, 'toddy or palm juice.' It is the oldest known name for Travancore. This kingdom was before historic times eclipsed to a great extent by others, and as little as possible has been ascertained regarding it. As above mentioned the Asoka inscriptions speak of the Chera ruler under the name of Keralaputra. Ptolemy speaks of *καρεοὶ* and *κάρουρα βασιλειονκηροβόθρουκηροβόθρου*; which may be taken to be Cheras, and Karúr the capital of Cherapati or the Chera ruler. Karúr, Kázhagam, or Kadáram, the two latter being the forms in the high Tamil dialect, mean the black town. Chera is always spoken of in tradition as well as in the written authorities as contemporary with Pándya and Chola. A stanza by Avvaiyár gives as the northern boundary Palni, as the eastern Chengodu on the frontier between Travancore and Tinnevelly, as the western Calicut, and as the southern the sea. As is usual in boundary stanzas, three of these are points only. The boundary to the north will proceed naturally along the barrier of the Palni and Ánamalai hills to the west coast. However these are the limits of a later period, and cannot define the old Cheramandalam. Karúr is much to the north of Palni. Another stanza makes the Tinnevelly Tenkási as the eastern boundary. There are grounds for supposing that the Cheramandalam included once the present Mysore, Coimbatore, and Salem, the old Tondainád, and the present South Malabar and Cochin. To the south-east at any rate it was always confined by Pándya and Chola. A tradition places the tri-junctional point of the Pándya, Chola, and Chera kingdoms on the banks of the Karaipottánáru, a small river entering the Cauvery eleven miles east of Karúr. Various principal towns assigned to Chera are Karúr, Avanási, Salem, Tirunagari in Tinnevelly, with places on the west coast. Among the titles given in poetical works to the Chera kings are Malayamán or ruler of the western hills, and Kolliverpan or ruler of the Kollimalai now in Salem. Long lists of original Chera kings are preserved. This kingdom however extensive was not according to record at any time belligerent. Its strength was the commerce of the south-western ports. It is related that the Pándyan ruler when invaded by enemies was in the habit of resorting to the king of Chera. South Travancore itself has

throughout history preserved an immunity from foreign invasion. When history is derived mainly from inscriptions, questions connected with alphabets assume importance. At the date when inscriptions were employed, the Northern Cheras used a primitive alphabet derived from the Cave form of the Southern Asoka alphabet; and this alphabet thus arising gave birth in turn to the modern Tulu, Malayálam, and Tamil alphabets. Modern Tamil however retains in combination with the northern element a large proportion of the original Vattezhuttu. The Southern Cheras retained the use of the Vattezhuttu till a very late period.

10. On the Malabar coast north of Travancore, a part of the country which was early Bráhmanized, the word Chera was converted into Kerala; and this is the form used in Sanskrit for the whole Chera peoples and countries. In Malayálam 'keram' means the cocoanut palm. Kerala was plainly an offshoot from Chera. The boundaries of Kerala are rather indeterminate. In its widest sense, it extended from Gokarna to Cape Comorin. The Keralotpatti, a concise account of the Náyars and their country, of which the original composition is ascribed to Sankarácharya, divides Kerala into four 'khandams' or provinces. The most northern begins at Gokarna and extends south to the Perumpoya or Pazhayannúr river five miles north by east of Mount Delly, and is called Tulurájyam. The next extends from Perumpoya to Pudupatnam near Níleswara, and is called Kúparájyam. The third extends from there to Kannetti near Quilon, and is called Keralarájyam proper. The fourth extends thence to Cape Comorin and is called Múshikarájyam. The two last have been subsequently called the Malayálam country, and the two first the Tulu or Canara country. The most southern part of the old Múshikarájyam is properly a Tamil country. The Malayálam language, though extremely ancient, must be regarded as an offshoot from the Tamil. Malabar had its Kurumba or pastoral tribes similarly with the east coast. Then an occupation of palm-cultivators called Tiyyar or Shánár ensued. The Náyars, a military Dravidian tribe, followed the palm-cultivators. Parasuráma's history indicates the intrusion of Bráhmans into Malabar, and though in its details legendary is too significant to be neglected. Parasuráma, who was probably himself a ruler or general of a South Indian tribe, assisted the Bráhmans against their rivals the Kshatriyas, and bestowed the upper plains of the Carnatic upon them. They however banished him thereafter as a homicide. Being at a loss for a domicile he asked one of the oceans, and its regent deity consented to yield him as much land as he could cover by throwing his battle axe. He threw the weapon from Gokarna to Cape Comorin, and the retiring ocean yielded him the coast of Malabar below the latitude of 15⅓. According to the Bráhmans themselves their introduction into this province was accompanied with a political organization of very unusual occurrence. The government was vested in a hierarchical council, formed of the Bráhmans of the sixty-four districts into which the country was divided. The Bráhmans then rented the land to the inhabitants of the country, reserving to themselves the right of property in the soil, and the management of public affairs. The defence of the whole or the use of weapons was intrusted to ten divisions and a half out of the sixty-four, and the executive government was consigned to one person and a council of four others appointed by the Bráhmans of the sixty-four villages for three years each. Thus originated the custom of twelve years' rulers in Malabar. But the divisions of the country here detailed were very probably anterior to the arrival of the Bráhmans. These arrangements in the course of time gave way to the election of one ruler of the military caste, who took an oath on his installation to acknowledge the authority of the Bráhmans, and do nothing contrary to their interest or without their concurrence. The tradition indicates the domination of the original and more southerly Chera kingdom, which appointed local governors or Perumáls. The first Perumál was named Keya Perumál, coming from a place Keyapuram, not identified; and his title was Serma Perumál, ruler of Malainád. The history of early foreign rule in Malabar is confused, and it is probable that Chera, Chola, and Pándya all exercised sway over different parts of it; or over the whole of it at different times. According to Arrian and Pliny, Malabar was included in the Pándyan kingdom in the early ages of Christianity. The traditions of Malabar proper recur in the records of Tuluva, and that province is said to have been apportioned in a similar manner. To Parasuráma is attributed the

recovery from the ocean of the whole tract from Násik to Kanyá Kumárí or Cape Comorin. The country so recovered was distinguished as the Seven Konkans; named Kiráta, Viráta, Maháráshtra, Konkana, Haiga, Tuluva, and Kerala. Haiga and Tuluva are the modern Canara, and the first seat of the Kadambas hereafter to be mentioned. The Konkan was in ancient, as in more modern, times the residence of uncivilized and piratical tribes. The Kiráta country indicates a country of barbarians. The term Maháráshtra is of vague import, and it need not be supposed that it was the seat of a separate kingdom. At the time that Parasuráma recovered Tuluva and Haiga from the sea, it is stated that he obtained a population also, by converting the fishermen of the coast into Bráhmans. The Konkaní Bráhmans have peculiar habits. The native Vattezhuttu alphabet was used in Malabar till the end of the seventeenth century, since when in the modified form of Kolezhuttu it has been retained for documents framed by reigning families. The Máppillas also of Tellicherry and the islands made a special use of the Kolezhuttu till quite recently, when the Arabic character was introduced.

11. Another portion of the old Cheramandalam was the Kongu country. Kongu means again in Tamil 'toddy.' It has been suggested that both it and Coorg or Kodagu mean 'crooked' from the shape of the country; but it is not a Dravidian custom to designate countries thus chorographically. "Kuda" is ancient Tamil for west; whence doubtless the meaning of Coorg. The Kongu country is not defined by native authority, but comprised approximately the present districts of Coimbatore and Salem. The ancient capital was Skandapuram; perhaps near the present Gejalhatti pass, formerly the highway from Mysore to Trichinopoly. In the third century of the present era the Kongu capital was transferred to Talakád on the Cauvery, and all the south of the Mysore country was then included. The seal of the Kongu people had the device of an elephant. The Kongu country was lost to the Cheramandalam at a date that may possibly have been the commencement of the Christian era, as will be mentioned.

12. On leaving the palm-cultivating tribes of the extreme south, the first nation of antiquity that occurs to the north-east or the Pallavas; or people of the low-lying rice-lands of the Carnatic below the gháts. 'Pal' means in Tamil "low." The Palli caste retain rice-cultivation to this day for their hereditary occupation. The attempts to connect the Pallavas with the Pahlavas, a foreign nation of the north-west and perhaps the πάκτυες of Herodotus, mentioned in Sanskrit writings, will not here be recognised. Nor does the word pálem or domain of the pálegárs seem to be of the same root. A title of the Pallava kings, though only in the Sanskritized lists, is Varman; it is not known whether it is indigenous or not. The Pallavas were either the ruling power among the Kurumbar, or superseded them. The first direct mention of them is in the Buddhist records of Ceylon; in which it is stated that a large number of Buddhist ascetics came to Ceylon from the Pallava kingdom in B.C. 157, to attend the inauguration of a stúpa at Anurádhapuram. From the numbers given it is considered that the Pallava kingdom was extensive. This people is not mentioned in the Asoka inscriptions, or by the most ancient foreign nations. The Pallavas are identified originally with the basin of the Pálár, the river which disembogues at Sadras, the σοβούρας ἐμπόριον of the Greeks. This country was later known as Tondaimandalam, or the country immediately surrounding the present capital of Southern India. They however soon extended their boundaries. Their first known capital was Conjeeveram. They are held to have been the constructors of the monolithic raths at Mahábalipur or the Seven Pagodas. They had also a military centre at Puzhalúr near the modern Red Hills, 10 miles north-west of Madras. From the east coast they conducted an extensive commerce with both the western and eastern worlds. The device of the ruling house was at any rate at a later period a bull, and during the same period it was a patron in some form of the Saiva religion.

13. The Kalinga realm may be included among the most ancient. The origin of the term is not known, but the Malays still designate all inhabitants of the Coromandel coast as Klings. The name appears in the modern Calingapatam, Coringa, &c. The inscriptions of a later date speak of Trikalinga or three Kalingas;

supposed to be Amarávatí, Warangal, and Rajahmundry. And the distinction must be old. Pliny, following Megasthenes, mentions the Macco Calingæ and the Gangarid Calingæ as separate from the Calingæ proper. The Mahábhárata names the Kalingas three times, and each time in conjunction with a different people. It has been stated, but improbably, that the name of the country Telingána, and of the Telugu language, was derived by corruption from Trikalingána. The Sanskrit derivation from Trilinga or three lingams is still less probable. The people of that country were not lingam worshippers at so early a date. Telugu means the clear language. Kalinga is alluded to in the earliest extant chronicles of India and Ceylon. The oldest Buddhist legends speak of the Kalinga monarchs as rulers of a civilized country. There is an account which states that the Ceylon Vijaya was descended from a Kalinga stock. Another tradition mentions a famine in the Kalinga country in the second generation before Buddha, that is to say 620 B.C. Pliny places the Calingæ on the sea coast, below the Malli of Mons Maleus or the modern Mahendragiri. The name is on the whole rather that of a country than of a dynasty, and the limits must have varied. Ordinarily it indicates the country north of the Gódávari and south of Orissa, and running inland as far as the Eastern Gháts. But it has also been used to include Orissa, and even the country as far as the Ganges valley. The country known later as the Vengi country was that portion of Kalinga which lay between the Kistna and Gódávari rivers. Amarávatí, Warangal, Vegi, Calingapatam, Chicacole, and Rajahmundry were at different times principal places within the limits of Kalinga. Sinhapuram is the Sanskrit name for an ancient capital city inland. Of the early history of this country little is known. It experienced successively, and in different parts, the rules of the Mauryas, the Andhras, the Pallavas, the Eastern Chálukyas, and the Ganapatis. Of these, the Mauryas belong to the most ancient period. Their capital was in the far north at Pátaliputra near the modern Patna, but the inscription of the Mauryan king Asoka at Jaugada in Ganjám, shows their occupation of the Kalinga country. The inscriptions of this part of the country show no trace of the ancient Dravidian alphabet, and it is possible that the inhabitants never possessed it. The character which they afterwards acquired came direct from the Asoka alphabet, though independently of the Chera above-mentioned, and forming quite a separate family.

14. Knowledge of Southern India in the most ancient times by Foreigners.—The most ancient legends connecting India with the west are the invasions of Semiramis and Sesostris, the progress of Dionysus through the east, and the labours of Hercules. The invasions, if they occurred, touched only the north. The worship of Dionysus is connected with that of Vishnu, the prevailing religion of the Ganges valley. Hercules is stated to have had for daughter Pandaia, a female ruler of the southern country extending to the sea which produces pearls. Arrian's name for the Indian Hercules is δορσάνης, the meaning of which is not known. He has been identified with the Balaráma of the Bráhmanical pantheon. Balaráma represents the agricultural population. In a broader view he may be said to represent Siva. In the first book of the Odyssey the 23rd and 24th lines run thus:—αἰθίοπες τοὶ δίχθα δεδαίαται ἔσχατοι ἀνδρῶν, οἵμεν δυσομένου ὑπερίονος οἱδ' ἀνιόντος. The Eastern Æthiops indicate, if only indistinctly, the old inhabitants of India. The Edomites were the earliest people of antiquity who traded with Ophir. The time of return in these voyages was in the third year, though the absence was only eighteen months; a period which would be accounted for by passages made with the monsoons. Ophir is held to be Ceylon or the Malabar coast. The first authentic notice of India is afforded by the invasion of Alexander. That event was a mere partial inroad producing no lasting effects. Yet the narratives of the expedition are precious in so far as they show that the Hindus were then precisely the same people as now; divided into castes, addicted to ascetic superstition, and abstruse philosophy. The expedition of Seleucus and the embassy of Megasthenes brought to light the existence of the great empire above-mentioned, of which the capital was Palibothra, on the Ganges. The interposition of the hostile monarchy of the Parthians cut off all land communications between Rome and India, but one embassy from this country reached the court of Augustus, proceeding by sea from the coast of Malabar. The Periplus of the Erythræan sea gives valuable information as to the commerce of Southern India in the first century of the Christian era.

15. Subsequent Dravidian History down to the Eleventh Century.—During this period the old Pándyan power waned; the Chera kingdom was contracted to small dimensions in the south-west, and the Chola power alone maintained itself. The Pallava and Kalinga powers were confined within the neighbourhood of the east coast. These changes were caused by pressure from the nations whom several centuries had bred on the uplands of the Deccan. It is reasonable to infer that the reason why the Cholas in the valley of the Cauvery maintained nevertheless a superiority was that Bráhmans had imparted to them their civilization.

16. The Kadamba nation proceeded in the first instance from the west coast region now styled Canara, but then known as Haiga and Tuluva. Their principal capitals were Palásaka now Halsí in the Bombay Presidency due west of Kurnool; and Vanavásí near the north-western confines of Mysore in nearly the latitude of Cuddapah, with Hángal adjacent to Vanavásí. In the early centuries of the Christian era these people possessed the western half of the present Mysore. Their banner was a monkey, and their signet a lion. The Kongu country south of Mysore already mentioned had at the same period a dynasty of its own. The Kalachuryas or Kalabhuryas were a tribe coming originally from Bundelkhand, due north of the Deccan. They were either Gonds or successors of Gonds in the same country. They were connected with the tribe of the Haihayas, who however are usually assigned to the districts further west in the valley of the Narbadá. In their history they had a southward movement, and eventually reached Mysore. The Rattas belonged to the most eastern Kanarese districts of the present Bombay Presidency. The name is the same as the Telugu Reddi of more modern times; but it was Sanskritized into Ráshtrakúta, by which designation the tribe is better known. These were all Dravidian tribes, with possibly a Kolarian intermixture.

17. The first capital of the Chálukyan kingdom of the Deccan was at Nagáví near the Bhímá river. Afterwards, as their power advanced through the Deccan, they established a capital at Kalyánapuram directly in the heart of the peninsula. From this last point they extended to the south and east. Kalyánapuram is now in the province of Bídar in the Nizám's Dominions. The country ruled by this kingdom when in its zenith was called Karṇátakadésa. The greater number of the nations with which their early history was connected, for instance Nalas, Sendrakas, Mátangas, Álupas, Látas, Málavas, Gurjaras, &c., do not concern the present subject. They first appear however in connection with Southern India as the conquerors of the Kadambas, Kongus, Kalachuryas and Rattas above-mentioned in the country about the present Bellary and Anantapur districts and Mysore. They also engaged in war with the Tamil Pallavas, but at first with varying success. In one of their expeditions to the south they claim to have burnt the old city of Kánchí. In a well-known inscription they are stated to have gained authority over the Cholas and Pándyas, and no doubt by the fourth and fifth centuries of the present era they were the most formidable power in Southern India. The Chálukyas divided into two branches in the beginning of the seventh century; one remaining in the Central Deccan, and the other proceeding to the Vengi country between the Kistna and Gódávari rivers which they conquered. The capital of the latter branch was Rajahmundry. The first ruler of the original dynasty after the separation was Satyásraya, also called Pulikesi. He is said to have conquered Harshavardhana king of Kanauj, at that time the most powerful ruler in North India. His period is placed about 585 A.D., a date which is confirmed by the accounts of the Chinese traveller Hiuen Tsiang. Some succeeding reigns were marked by severe contests with the Pallavas and other nations of the north. The Rattas then made head against the Chálukyas, and the king of the latter Jayasinha was obliged to take refuge with the Chaura dynasty of Gujarát. Tailapa a Chálukyan at about 800 A.D., defeated the Rattas, and re-established the Chálukyan power in the Deccan though with reduced boundaries. Frequent wars with the Cholas and Pallavas then again ensued. The most powerful of this second line was Vikrama. Under a ruler called Trailokyamulla, the Chálukya kingdom began again to decline. Bijjala a general of Kalachuryan descent and Jaina by religion eventually expelled Trailokyamulla from his throne. Religious feuds between the new Jaina faith and the old Saiva religion at that time occupied

attention in the Deccan, and as a result of the dissensions Someswara a Chálukyan recovered his dominions in 1182 A.D. The Hoysala Ballálas however from the south, and the Jádaus of Devagiri from the north, overran the country, and the Chálukyan-Deccaní kingdom disappeared then from history. The boar was the original emblem of the Deccaní Chálukyas. The first ruler of the Kalinga Chálukyas was Kubja Vishnuvardhana, brother of Satyásraya. His conquest of the east-coast Pallavas, the dynasty of which went by the name of Sálankáyana was important not only on account of its political results, but also as marking a revival of Bráhmanism in the valley of the Kistna after a long prevalence of Buddhism. Four centuries afterwards in 1022 the Chálukyan Rájarája married a daughter of Rájendra the Cholan, and from that date the Cholas established themselves in the Vengi province of the Kalinga country. The Chálukyans were a Dravidian race, whose native habits and religion were during historical times modified by Buddhist and Jaina councillors. They shared with the Pallavas the capacity for architecture, and the style called by their name is peculiar to themselves. As far as there can be any geographical distinction of architectural styles, the Chálukyan interposed between the areas of the North Indian and the so-called Dravidian of the south.

18. The Hoysala Ballálas above-mentioned were originally subordinate to the Kalachuryas. They began to attain power in Mysore at the beginning of the eleventh century. Their capital was at Dwárasamudra, the modern Halabíd. Their crest was a tiger. The Jádaus or Yádavas were a tribe allied to the Hoysala Ballálas who established themselves at Devagiri, afterwards called by the Muhammadans Daulatábád. Their crest was a golden kite.

19. The same down to the thirteenth century.—The period from the eleventh to the thirteenth centuries in Southern India was one of material wealth, and of high civilization under the influence of the Bráhmanical religion. In the eleventh century gold was the most common precious metal in Southern India, silver however on the other hand being scarcely known. Strabo states that "the Indians unacquainted with mining and smelting are ignorant of their own wealth." But if that was so in his time, which is doubtful, it had ceased to be so. The Buddhist religion was by this time extinct. Jainism which had followed it and made some progress southwards was in its decline. In the eleventh century a large number of important Siva temples were built in the south, and in the thirteenth century a large number of important Vishnu temples. The nation which most profited by Bráhmanical civilization thus established was that of the Cholas, and in the eleventh century there occurred a sudden development of the power of this people, which extended over the country of the Pándyas, South Travancore, and the north of Ceylon. At the beginning of that century the situations were thus. The Kalinga Chálukyas held all the country along the eastern coast from the borders of Orissa as far south as the borders of the Pallava country. The Pallava kingdom was still a powerful one, possessing the coast from its junction with the Chálukyas down to the northern border of the Chola territories, which lay south of Kánchí. The Pándyas remained within their original borders. The Kongu rulers who governed the old Chera country east of the Malayálam tracts along the coast were still independent; but were exposed to the attacks of the Hoysala Ballálas then rising into power and destined to subvert many of the surrounding monarchies. In A.D. 1022 by an intermarriage between the two dynasties, the Chola ruler Rájendra acquired possession of the whole of the Kalinga-Chálukyan dominions. This was followed at the beginning of the reign of his successor, Rájendra Kulatunga Chola by the complete subversion of the Pallavas and the annexation of their possessions. Tondaimandalam or the territory surrounding the present Madras was conquered by Athondai or Tondaiman Chakravarti, the son of Kulatunga. The Pándyans also were conquered and a short dynasty of Chola-Pándyan kings was established at Madura. Somewhat later the Hoysala Ballálas of Mysore overthrew the Kongu kings of South Mysore and Coimbatore and seized their territories. Vishnuvardhana, a Balléla king, became a convert to the Vishnu creed through the influence of the teacher Rámánuja Ácharya to whom he gave a refuge when escaping from the Chola king. At the beginning of the thirteenth century the power of the Ballálas of Mysore was increased by the conquest of the

Kadambas and Kalachuryas to their immediate north, and by the downfall of the Deccaní-Chálukyan dynasty. The Yádavas of Devagiri seized the northern part of the Deccaní-Chálukyan kingdom, but their history hardly pertains to the present remarks. Later again however the Cholas lost their northern possessions, which were seized by the Kákatíyas or Ganapatis of Warangal. The earliest authentic king of the Ganapati dynasty is Proláraja who built the city of Warangal 86 miles north-east of the modern Haidarábád. Their original capital however was Hanumakonda in the same neighbourhood. One of the most remarkable rulers of this line was the queen Rudramma. Marco Polo, the Venetian traveller who visited her dominions at the close of her reign, introduced her to European history. In 1295 A.D. Rudramma abdicated in favour of her daughter's son Pratápa Rudra, virtually the last of his line. The Cholas in the end obtained a temporary sovereignty, checked by the power of the Hoysala Ballálas above the gháts in Mysore. All these powers were eclipsed by the inroad of the Muhammadan arms.

20. The Muhammadan Conquest.—The conquest of India by the Arab dynasty of Ghazní in Afghánistán forms the era at which commences a regular series of Indian history supported by written documents. The bold and rough population who inhabit the mountains of Afghánistán enable Mahmúd the Great to unite all the west of India, with Khorassan and great part of Tartary, into one empire. His dynasty was subverted by that of Ghori, another Afghán kingdom, and this was followed by a long series of emperors similarly descended, but ruling at Delhi. In 1398 Delhi was taken by the Tartar Tamerlane. A century afterwards again Bábar founded at Delhi the Mughal or Mongolian empire, which extended under Akbar and Aurangzeb, displayed a power and splendour scarcely equalled by any monarchy even of Asia. Along with Afghánistán, it included the whole of Hindustán, and nominally the whole of Southern India. The Muhammadan races first made their influence felt in Southern India and Ceylon many centuries before this period by the establishment of trading emporia on the coasts. On the Malabar coast, Calicut, and in Ceylon, Manár and Mantotte or Mántai, were the chief entrepôts of traffic for the Moorish merchants, who received from agents at various ports the produce of different parts of the East. There was even a close connection between the Maldives and the Muhammadan settlements on the Malabar coast, notably Cannanore, resulting in a feudatory subjection of the islands to that state. To this day the Maldives are ruled by a sultán, though inhabited by a Dravidian race. The extension of the Muhammadan religion into India was ordinarily dependent on their political power. Yet a remarkable exception to this occurred in the case of the conversion of the Rájá of Kerala to Muhammadanism in the ninth century. This occurrence is recorded in the Keraloutpatti. One of its consequences was the formation of a Muhammadan population, the Máppillas of the Malabar coast. These events however were only partial and local, and deserve no more than a passing mention. The supremacy of the Muhammadans came from the north. Delhi had been captured by the Ghazní Ghorians in 1193, and a dynasty established there which lasted till A.D. 1288. The Khiljís succeeded, occupying the period from 1288–1321; and Alá-ud-dín, nephew of Jalál-ud-dín Khiljí, led the first Muhammadan expedition into the Deccan in A.D. 1294. Ten years later the Musalmán armies under the general Málik Káfúr swept over the whole of the Deccan. The Yádava Devagiri State and the Ganapati Warangal State were then both reduced to subjection; and Dwárasamudra the capital of the Hoysala Ballálas was taken and sacked. These early inroads reached even to Tanjore and Madura in the extreme south, but how far the Cholan and Pándyan kingdoms were affected politically is not recorded. Anarchy at any rate followed over the greater part of the south; the Musalmán governors, the representatives of the old royal families, and the minor local chiefs, all engaging in internecine struggles for supremacy. A slight check was given to the spread of the Muhammadan arms when a confederation of Deccaní Hindu chiefs, led by Ganapati Rájá, defeated a large Muhammadan army. The aspect of affairs was later altered by the revolt of the Deccaní Musalmáns against their sovereign in A.D. 1347, which resulted in the establishment of the Bahmaní kingdom of Gulbarga in the Deccan. The Hindus also made one final effort to achieve imperial rule.

21. THE HINDU VIJAYANAGAR DYNASTY.—While the Muhammadan rebels were consolidating their kingdom in the Deccan, another large power was being formed south of the Kistna. This was the Hindu kingdom of Vijayanagar founded in 1336 by Hakka and Bukka, two refugees from Warangal, and said to have been the sons of Sargama, a petty Carnatic chief of Kurumba origin. The site of the Vijayanagar capital was the present Hampi in the Bellary district. Established on the ruins of the Hoysala Ballálas and the other Hindu sovereignties, the Vijayanagar kingdom speedily rose to a height of influence such as no southern kingdom had yet attained, and held the Muhammadans in check for two centuries; but not without reverses. At the first conflict in 1364 between the Bahmaní Muhammadans and the neighbouring ruler of Vijayanagar, the former depopulated the country. In 1374 Mujáid Sháh of Gulbarga overran the whole peninsula down to Cape Comorin. The Bahmaní kingdom presently fell to pieces; being succeeded by five separate kingdoms, hereafter to be named, founded by rival Musalmán leaders. Their jealousies aided the Vijayanagar sovereigns in the acquisition of power. In 1479 the first Vijayanagar dynasty came to an end, another being instituted by Narasinha. In 1487 this kingdom completely subverted the Pándyan country, Chola having fallen long before. By the close of the fifteenth century the power of Vijayanagar was acknowledged as paramount through the entire peninsula. Small principalities existed, such as Mysore, the Reddy chieftainship of Kondavíd south of the Kistna, Nellore, the Gajapati dynasty of Cuttack, the Bídars of Harpanhalli, and the always independent principality of Travancore; but Vijayanagar was supreme. Narasinha was succeeded in 1509 by Krishna Ráya, who reduced the whole of the east coast of the peninsula into subjection. The dynasty in his day reached its greatest height. His minister was a Bráhman, the well-known Timmarája. The traveller Edwardo Barbessa describes the city of Vijayanagar in 1516 as "of great extent, highly populous, and "the seat of an active commerce in country diamonds, rubies from Pegu, silks of "China and Alexandria, and cinnabar, camphor, musk, pepper, and sandal from "Malabar." The palaces of the king and ministers and the temples are described as 'stately buildings of stone.' According to the same authority the kingdom comprised the whole of the kingdom south of the Kistna. Rámarája, the minister's son, was reigning in 1564 when his kingdom was conquered by the five new Muhammadan dynasties. The kingdom of Bijápur was founded by Adil Sháh in 1489. It retained its independence for 197 years until it was absorbed by Aurangzeb in 1686. The Nizám Sháhí dynasty of Ahmadnagar was established in 1487 by Ahmad Nizám. It was subverted in 1637 by Sháh Jahán. Imad ul Mulk made himself independent at Berar in 1484, and commenced the Imad Sháhí dynasty, which was extinguished at the end of ninety years by the king of Ahmadnagar in 1574. Kulí Kutab, a Túrkoman who rose to be governor of Golconda, established his independence there in 1512. This dynasty was subverted by Aurangzeb in 1687. The dynasty of Bídar was established in 1498 by Ahmad Baríd. This kingdom was of limited extent and the period of its extinction is uncertain. In 1564 these Muhammadan sovereigns combined, defeated the Hindu army at Tálikot, and sacked the capital of Vijayanagar. Thus was for ever crushed out all independent Hindu power from the south of India. The feeling indeed of the Hindu population of the south has been always loyal to the ancient Hindu rulers. Copper-plate documents acknowledging the representatives of the Vijayanagar family as paramount sovereigns are found as late as the year 1793. Rámarája's two brothers took possession of Penukonda and Chandragiri, and one of his descendants to this day assumes the title of Rájá of Vijayanagar, and has a palace at Anagundí on the same site. But all real power vanished at Tálikot. For a second time the whole of the peninsula was thrown into confusion. The minor chiefs seized the opportunity for throwing off their dependence; and throughout the peninsula arose a large number of petty pálegárs and small chieftains, whose quarrels and wars and struggles for supremacy kept the country disturbed for two and-a-half centuries.

22. THE NÁYAKS OF MADURA.—The only Hindu chiefs that attained to real power after the close of the Vijayanagar dynasty were the Madura Náyaks, formerly viceroys of Vijayanagar. In the reign of Krishna Ráya of Vijayanagar the

rulers of Tanjore and Madura, that is to say of Chola and Pándya, being at war with each other, Nágama Náyak, a Telugu officer of the Ráya, was sent to the support of the Pándyan ruler. After subduing the Chola Rájá, Nágama imprisoned his ally, and assumed the sovereignty, in consequence of which a force was sent against him under his son Viswanátha Náyak. Visvanátha defeated his father, and sent him prisoner to Vijayanagar; and on the death of the Madura ruler which happened shortly afterwards he was made Governor of Madura. He took advantage of the hostilities between the Rájás of Vijayanagar, and their Muhammadan neighbours to convert his government into an independency and was succeeded in it by his descendants. The dynasty continued till the middle of the last century. The greatest of the line was Tirumala Náyak. The history of Madura has already been detailed, as also that of the subordinate principality of the Maravar of Ramnad.

23. Progress of the Muhammadans.—While the country was in this state the Muhammadans gradually pressed downwards, securing the dominion of the parts south of the Tungabhadra and eastwards to the sea, and encroaching southwards, till they had reached the lower confines of the Telugu country by the middle of the seventeenth century, and by the beginning of the eighteenth had extended yet further.

24. European Settlements in India.—The first modern European nation to establish a settlement in India was the Portuguese. They occupied Calicut and Goa on the West Coast at the beginning of the sixteenth century, or when Akbar was on the throne of Delhi yet the Hindu Narasinha dynasty of Vijayanagar and the five independent Muhammadan kingdoms of Bijapur, Ahmadnagar, Golconda, Berar, and Bídar divided the real political supremacy of the Deccan, and the most southern part of India was still under its native Hindu rulers. The two navigators Vasco da Gama and Cabral were the pioneers of Portuguese commerce, and Albuquerque laid the foundations of Portuguese power in India. Portuguese settlers at no time came into conflict with the English, but fell before the Dutch progress or in consequence of the neglect of their parent country. The Dutch were the second of modern European nations that arrived in India. After previous occupation of various stations in the Eastern Archipelago, they settled at Pulicat, Sadras, Pálakollu, and other places on the eastern coast of Southern India, from the beginning of the seventeenth century onwards. This was the period of the Pálegárs, of the Náyak rule at Madura, and of the progress of the Muhammadans southwards. The Dutch rapidly dispossessed the Portuguese; and in the next century they in turn surrendered to the English. The Danes also came to Tranquebar in Southern India in the seventeenth century; but their occupation of that settlement was wholly peaceful. Tranquebar was purchased from the Danes by the English in the present century. The earliest possession of the French in the East was Madagascar, but in 1672 they purchased the site of Pondicherry. The relations between the English and French in India were undisturbed until the war of the Austrian Succession three-quarters of a century later, when occurred the important events to be narrated later on.

25. The Earliest English Settlements.—The European nations, as is well known, began their career in this country as merchants. In order to carry on their occupation, they erected factories, which they were obliged to fortify so as to secure themselves from the hostility of the various native powers. The first place at which the English traded on the eastern coast of India was Peddapalle, now Nizámpatam, a seaport in the Kistna district. Captain Hippon in the ship "Globe" landed there on the 20th August 1611. He at first had touched at Pulicat, but the Dutch Governor Van Wersicke refused to allow him to trade. Having left an establishment at Peddapalle with the means for carrying on a commerce, he sailed to Masulipatam, where he arrived on 31st August and proceeded similarly. The Masulipatam station became a well-established factory and was the foundation of the English trade in the East Indies; though the English obtained their first treaty of protection from the Mughal Emperor Jahángír at Surat on the other coast two years later. In 1616 factories were established on the West Coast at Calicut and Kranganúr by permission of the Rájá or Zamorin of that country. In 1619 the English established a factory at Pulicat, by the side of one already

placed there by the Dutch in 1609. This was effected under a treaty concluded two years before between King James I and the States-General. But in a few years it was necessary to withdraw this factory owing to the jealousy of the Dutch. In 1625, two years after the massacre of the English by the Dutch at Amboyna, the Company's agents at Bantam in Java suggested to the authorities in Europe the expediency of directing their attention to the trade on the Coromandel Coast, and themselves at the close of the season despatched a vessel from Batavia to a place called Armegam 40 miles north of Pulicat, where a small trading establishment was set up. This was not so well suited for trade as Masulipatam, which was preferred as being more immediately adjacent to the seats of native manufacture. The local governor however at the latter place exacted such heavy dues that it was temporarily abandoned. The Masulipatam factory was transferred to Armegam in 1628. The site at Armegam was obtained from the local karnam P. Arumugam Mudali, and the factory was named after him. Armegam was the first place fortified by the English in India. In 1632 the Masulipatam factory was re-opened under a "golden firmaun" from the King of Golconda. In 1634 a small town called Víravásaram, 8 miles north of the port of Narasápur in the Gódávari district, was occupied for the purposes of a factory. During this period the great preponderance of the English trade was on the Eastern or Coromandel Coast. The natives there had brought the art of painting calicoes to a high pitch of perfection and these commodities were in demand not only in Europe, but also in countries to the eastward, in Burma, Siam, and what were known as the Spice Islands in the Indian Archipelago.

26. Settlement at Madras.—Whether owing to the ill-will of the Venkatagiri Zamíndár whose territory was adjacent, or to the fact that the place was not convenient for the inland trade in piece goods, the Armegam factory did not exist long. Mr. Francis Day, who was then a member of the Masulipatam council and chief of the Armegam factory, proposed a removal to the south of the Dutch settlement of Pulicat, and in 1639 A.D. an arrangement was made with the local Nâyak called Damarla Venkatádri Náyudu, by which the English were to be allowed a settlement at a small kuppam or fishing village which is now Madras. It was necessary however to have a formal grant from the recognized ruler of the country, who was then Srírangaráyal, a descendant of the ancient Vijayanagar kings. After their defeat by the Muhammadan kings of Bijápur and Golconda, at the battle of Tálikot in 1564 A.D., the broken remnant of royalty had fallen back on their southern possessions; first to Penukonda on the borders of Cuddapah and Bellary, and then in 1594 A.D. to Chandragiri. From the place last-named the Ráyal issued his sanad, granting permission for the English to build a fort. It was one of the last acts of his race, for in 1646 the Katab Sháhí kings of the Deccan expelled him from the country, and he became a refugee in Mysore. Direction was made in the sanad that the settlement should be called after the Chandragiri ruler, namely Srírangapatnam or the town of Sríranga; but the Náyak desired that it should be called Chennappa after his father, and secured this object. To this day the town is known to natives by no other name than Chennappapatnam or Chennapatnam. 'Chenna' means in Telugu 'fair'; and is not to be confounded with the Tamil 'chinna', which means 'small'. The term Madras by which the place has always been designated by Europeans can apparently be derived from nothing else than the name of a Sanskrit legendary king of the lunar race, Mandaráz in the Telugu form; on the analogy of Dugarázpatnam the alternative form for Armegam. Madras though within the limits of the Tamil language is close to the most southern limits of the Telugu language, and under Vijayanagar all State nomenclature was Telugu. The contention that Madras was derived from 'madrissa', a Muhammadan school, will not bear scrutiny; for there can have been no such school there. That of its being derived from மதில் (mathil), the Tamil for an enclosure or fort, is equally unsustainable; there is no evidence that the place was in any way fortified. On the other hand it is not to be supposed that the neighbourhood was a desert locality. Unless the legend of St. Thomas is untrue, which there is no reason to suppose, that Apostle found at Mailapur only three miles to the south and now a suburb of Madras a native town so large as to demand the

devotion of his labours to it. It is stated that St. Thomas was put to death by the natives at the neighbouring Mount now known by his name. The story of St. Thomas is told in the tenth book of the Lusiad of Camoens. Bráhmans following the Vellálar of Athondai, or settled in the country before them, found the neighbourhood attractive and established large agraharams there. To this day Mailapur is the principal residence of the Bráhmans of Madras. In 1503, a century and a half before the arrival of the English, the Portuguese had established a commercial factory at Mailapur, where there had been previously a community of Native Christians; and they named the place St. Thomé. The English in occupying Mandarázpatnam but followed the indications of many predecessors.

27. Without waiting for instructions from the Court of Directors, Mr. Day proceeded to the construction of a fortress, which in India is soon surrounded by a town. The latter he allowed to retain its Indian appellation, but the former he named Fort St. George. The territory granted was a slender strip of land to the north of St. Thomé running six miles along the shore and one mile inland; but it included what was considered to be an advantageous site in the small island formed by two branches of the river Cooum. This was four hundred yards long by about a hundred yards wide; and it could be easily rendered secure against the predatory attacks of native horsemen. Mr. Day built a wall round the island, laid out the enclosure in streets and alleys, and constructed a fortress in its northern corner. No one but Europeans being allowed to live on the island, the settlement was shortly known as White Town. A large native settlement arose however outside the island formed by weavers and other people of the country, and this was styled Black Town. Both White Town and Black Town were included under the general name of Madraspatnam or Madraspatam.

28. The First Thirty Years of the Madras Settlement.—Prior to 1670 no official records belonging to this Presidency have been preserved, and it is therefore difficult to trace a connected history before that date. Yet it is certain that the half century immediately following the first establishment of the town exhibited for the settlers many uneasy situations. The advance of the Muhammadan king of Golconda into the peninsula, and the occasional inroads of Maráthás, hindered the operations of their trade. The Chandragiri Rájá was conquered as above said in 1646 by the Muhammadans; and Neknam Khán, the officer of the king of Golconda who commanded the country surrounding Madras, then known as the Nawáb, was seldom contented with the yearly rent. Presents and fines were exacted, and an embargo was laid upon goods and supplies going to Madras until such were paid. Siege even was laid to the place. Yet it does not appear that after the walls were finished any native army ever captured Fort St. George. The new station was for the first thirteen years of its existence subordinate to the Presidency of Bantam in Java. In 1653 Fort St. George was raised to the rank of a separate Presidency, independent of Bantam, and Mr. Aaron Baker who was the resident Agent became the first Governor. The first direct communication between Madras and England occurred in 1642–43, in which the Agent and Council acquainted the Court of Directors with the absolute necessity of giving a due equipment to the fort. In 1644 the money expended on the fortifications amounted to Rs. 22,940, and it was computed that Rs. 20,000 more would be requisite, with a garrison of one hundred soldiers, to render the station impregnable to the native powers. In 1645 a renewed grant for the settlement was obtained from Golconda. In 1651, orders having been received from England not to add to the strength of the fort, the Agent stated that unless the fort was strengthened trade could not be extended. Similar representations were made in 1652 on the arrival of the news that a war between England and Holland was imminent. In 1654 however the Directors ordered that the civil establishment should be reduced to two factors, and that the guard should consist of only ten soldiers. The English trade on the Coromandel Coast then declined, as a consequence of the inland wars and the superior force of the Dutch by land and sea. In 1657 complaint was also made that the interference of merchant adventurers had drained the country of goods. By a new arrangement in 1658 all the factories on the Coromandel Coast and in Bengal were made subordinate to Fort St. George. From communications

received in 1660 by the Court of Directors, it appears that the trade at Fort St. George was then beginning to revive. Sir Thomas Chambers had the year before become Governor. In 1661, Sir Edward Winter a member of the cavalier party in England was appointed Governor. With a high sense of the prerogative of his nation and of the political exigencies attending the Indian stations, he was nevertheless not supported by the merchants composing his council. By the stand he made against the demands of native powers, a temporary check was given to trade; which circumstance was used to his disadvantage. In 1665 he was superseded on the ground that he had unduly engaged in private trade, which however was not the secret of his character. Mr. George Foxcroft a London merchant succeeded Sir Edward Winter, and the latter then took a seat as second in council. But shortly he convinced himself, or used as a pretext, that the language of the new Governor was treasonable to the English crown, and endangered the position of the settlement; and on that ground seized and imprisoned him with the assistance of the military. From this time Sir Edward Winter found himself in a situation which if loyal to the crown was decidedly mutinous with reference to the Directors. It is not known that any trade was carried on for the benefit of England, and it was only in 1668 when Mr. Foxcroft had been detained for over two years as a prisoner that he yielded to a royal mandate sent out by Commissioners. Mr. Foxcroft then succeeded and Sir Edward Winter retired to Púlicat and other places. The Directors in 1669 sent out Sir William Langhorne with six Commissioners to investigate the whole of this transaction; and their report disclosing more difficulties in the situation than had been supposed by the Directors, the latter condoned proceedings, recalling however both the parties. In these few words must be mentioned the most remarkable incident that has occurred in the constitutional history of any Indian settlement; for during three years the Madras station was in fact a private station appertaining to Sir Edward Winter, and the Directors were powerless to recover it until they had obtained the royal assistance. The effects of the incident on the political situation are not recorded, but it is probable that the Directors would have lost nothing if they had supported their Agent in the first instance. His views, as to the necessity of asserting a supremacy by sea as a counterpoise for weakness by land were reproduced twenty years by a Director himself, Sir Josiah Child. Mr. Foxcroft was succeeded in 1670 by Sir William Langhorne. In that year the fort was besieged by a local Náyak or Hindu district officer, but on application to his superior the Nawáb of the Carnatic the siege was raised. In 1662 a Muhammadan general of Golconda captured the city of St. Thomé. Numbers of Portuguese were on that occasion driven out of the town, and many took refuge in Fort St. George itself and built houses there, thereby strengthening the place.

29. The succeeding Twenty Years.—The official records of the Madras Presidency begin in 1670, and by that time the settlement was a place of some magnitude. The White Town contained about fifty houses laid out in twelve streets. The constitution of the establishments had been borrowed from that at the earlier settlement of Surat. The Governor or Agent was the first member of council, the Book-keeper was second, the Warehouse-keeper was third, and the Customer was fourth. The duties of these officers may be gathered from their names. The duties of the Customer however were peculiar to the English settlements. He collected customs, rents, and other taxes; and exercised also magisterial functions. His office has been continued uninterruptedly to the present day, remaining now under the designation of the Collectorate of Madras and Sea Customs. The council composed of such four members met every Monday and Tuesday at eight in the morning for the transaction of business. All matters which concerned the Company or their servants, even to the most trifling point, were laid before this council. The Secretary kept a diary of proceedings and consultations; and a copy of it was sent to England each year together with a general letter reviewing the proceedings, while in reply a general letter was received from the Court of Directors. The diaries and letters have been preserved either in India or in England down to the present time. The members of Council themselves were known as merchants. Those under them were graded as factors, writers, and apprentices. The Governor drew a salary of three hundred pounds a year, the second in council drew one hundred, the third drew seventy, and the

fourth drew fifty. Factors were paid from twenty to forty pounds, writers received ten pounds, apprentices received five pounds. But all servants of the Company were lodged and boarded at the Company's expense. Nor did the salaries thus drawn represent in any way the real incomes. Every servant of the Company was allowed to trade to any port in the East, so long as he paid the custom duties levied by the Company, and did not interfere with the trade between India and Europe. Large fortunes were no doubt made by private trade. Another source of emolument was the receipt of presents from native merchants and others who sold goods to the Company. This however was not permitted by the Company, where it had the power to repress the custom. In addition to the establishment above-named, there was a Chaplain in receipt of a hundred pounds a year, who read prayers each day and preached on Sundays. There was also a Schoolmaster in receipt of fifty pounds a year, who taught the children in White Town. The ordinary administration of justice was as above mentioned conducted by the Collector of Customs, and as Magistrate in the Black Town he sat alone. Europeans were tried by the Governor and Council in the Fort with a jury of twelve Europeans. In the White Town the public peace was maintained by the Agent, as Commander of the garrison. In the Black Town it was kept by a native public officer known as the Pedda Náyak. In the early days of the settlement, twenty native servants, described as peons, sufficed to keep the peace. Subsequently however the number was increased to fifty. In return for such service the Pedda Náyak was granted certain rice-fields rent-free, as also petty duties on rice, fish, oil, and betel-nut. The office of Pedda Náyak was hereditary.

30. Sir William Langhorne was Governor of Madras from 1670 to 1677, and in the first year of his administration the Muhammadan ruler of the Carnatic made over to the Company his claim on the customs at Madras for a fixed rent of 1,200 pagodas, or 4,200 rupees per annum. In that year Charles the Second had been ten years on the throne of England, and an alliance had been entered into between England and France against the Dutch. In 1671 a French fleet arrived in India, and in 1672 the French forces captured St. Thomé from the Muhammadans, who had held possession of it since 1646. Shortly after this the Muhammadan army under the command of a general named Bobba Sáhib endeavoured to recover the place. The position of Sir William Langhorne at this juncture was in a high degree critical. He was averse to assisting the French against the interests of Bobba Sáhib; and the latter expected the English to join him directly against the French. Furthermore at the same time a Dutch fleet was cruising off the coast of Coromandel, which had attacked the French at St. Thomé, and though it was thence repulsed, there were anticipations that it would attack Fort St. George. Sir William Langhorne endeavoured to come to definite terms with Bobba Sáhib, but the overtures were rejected. The following is an extract from the subsequent consultations of the Agency, dated 6th May 1678:—"Bobba Sáhib, formerly "general of the King of Golcondah's force against the French at St. Thomé, and "in those days a bitter enemy to the English, but now in disgrace and debt, has "been some days here trying all ways to borrow money, and to have an interview "with the Governor, which is refused him by reason of his former unkindness when "he was in power, and he in despair quits the place for Pullimalee, intending to go "to his own country." After a year and-a-half the French still remained in possession of St. Thomé; within which time they had established a camp at Triplicane, the Muhammadan quarter of Madras, and fortified it more strongly than the English had fortified Fort St. George. In the face of these belligerent powers, and as trade was meanwhile at a standstill, Sir William Langhorne and his council at one time contemplated the advisability of abandoning Madraspatnam altogether, for the neighbourhood of St. Thomé, formerly a source of assistance, was now become the cause of continual anxiety. Afterwards however more energetic measures were decided upon, and at a consultation held on the 2nd February 1674, it being recorded that the interests of the Company, as well as the lives of the residents at the Presidency, were staked upon the issue of the circumstances then present, a resolution was made to enlarge and strengthen the fortifications. It is here to be mentioned that at this time four Frenchmen from Java were staying in Fort St. George; and in May 1674 both the Dutch and the Musalmáns peremptorily demanded their removal. To the demand Sir William Langhorne

for a long time paid no attention, because of the English alliance with France; but at length the Muhammadan army laid siege to Fort St. George. The Frenchmen refused to leave the place unless they were permitted to go to St. Thomé, and thither the Dutch and Muhammadans would not allow them to proceed. Finally, the President in Council sent them under passports and an escort to the distant Bijápur, the Muhammadan kingdom in the western Deccan. On the 26th August 1674, the French were compelled to surrender St. Thomé to the Dutch, which they did on the condition that their garrison should be transported to Europe. At that moment the news arrived from Europe that in the preceding January peace had been concluded between England and Holland. But for this the Dutch would doubtless have followed up the capture of St. Thomé by the siege of Fort St. George; and the fall of the place might well have followed, as the fortifications were still weak, and there were only two hundred and fifty men in garrison. Dr. Fryer the traveller visited Madras in 1674 and has recorded his observations regarding the localities.

31. Sir William Langhorne was recalled from Madras in 1678 on a charge of having given undue advantages to a native merchant called Kesava Víranna for a consideration, and was succeeded by Mr. Streynsham Master, an Indian servant of the Company who had distinguished himself in a defence of Surat against the Maráthás. It was at this period that Sivají, founder of the Maráthá empire, attained the height of his power. He had assumed all the insignia of a monarch; and an English deputation from Bombay had been present at his coronation. This ruler suddenly entered upon an invasion of the extreme south of the peninsula. He set out from his dominions in the Western Gháts, marched through the Deccan from the north-west to the south-east, and penetrated as far as Tanjore; and on his way he passed by Madras. The entries in the consultation books of the Presidency show that presents were sent to him of ordinary necessaries of which he stood in need at a cost of sixty pagodas. There were constant rumours that he was about to attack the English and Dutch settlements. After a while however and having fought several severe battles with the Hindu ruler of Mysore, the Maráthás retired to their own country.

32. About this time a more regular system of administration of the Indian stations was instituted, and the different ranks of the Company's servants were definitely settled. Other factories had recently been established to the north eastward, and the whole of these continued under the authority of the Madras Government until Bengal was separated twenty years later. In 1678 the Governor and Council constituted themselves according to their hitherto existing practice, but more formally, into a Supreme Court of Judicature, for dealing with Europeans and for listening to appeals. This in 1684 was superseded by an Admiralty Court presided over by a Judge Advocate from England. The Admiralty Court by fusion with the Recorder's Court hereafter to be mentioned became in 1801 the first Supreme Court appointed by the Crown; and the latter by fusion with the East India Company's Sadr Court hereafter to be mentioned became in 1862 the present High Court. In October 1680 there were difficulties of internal administration at Madras. A strike took place regarding taxes amongst the inhabitants who dyed native calicoes and were known by the name of 'painters,' and the whole body left the Company's jurisdiction and went away to St. Thomé threatening to assassinate such native servants of the Company as refused to join them. These men also prevented provisions and goods from entering the town. The Governor and Council thereupon entertained a hundred Portuguese to keep guard over the calico-washers, that they might not follow the same example. The wives and children of the mutineers were taken out of their houses in Black Town and driven into the pagoda; and it was proclaimed by beat of drum that unless the mutineers delivered themselves up within ten days, all their houses, goods and chattels within the jurisdiction of the Company would be confiscated. Eight days afterwards the ringleaders were arrested at St. Thomé, and brought within the Company's territories. These were committed to prison; and on the same evening the remainder came into the town and made their submission. St. Mary's Church in Fort St. George was opened in this year.

33. Mr. Master held the same views as had previously been held by Sir Edward Winter as to the necessity of accompanying commercial enterprise in the Indies with the exhibition of considerable material force. The experiences which he had gained by residence in the country had also taught him to understand the characters of the different authorities with whom he had to deal, and to give to each his station. As a result of this disposition he came into conflict with Lingappa the Poonamallee Náyak, preferring to deal direct with the Muhammadan Court at Golconda rather than through the intervention of that official. The claims of the latter for presents were refused, and when force was used it was met by force. The Directors in England however were not at this time prepared to sanction proceedings which transgressed ordinary mercantile custom, nor had they any knowledge of native character, and they recalled Mr. Master. Remaining in the country for a short while after he was relieved of the highest office, he was exposed to great indignities. The grounds stated for Mr. Master's recall were the usual allegation that he had engaged in private trade of a nature detrimental to the Company's interests; but the real cause was an incompatibility of temper between him and his employers, arising out of divergent views as to policy.

34. Mr. William Gyfford who succeeded Mr. Master in 1681 soon gave offence to the Directors in an opposite direction, by undue compliance with the desires of the native inhabitants of Madras to escape taxation. The Directors had been for a long time anxious to raise a quit-rent from all the householders in Madras, Native and European. They hoped by so doing to defray the yearly charge for repairs and fortifications. Mr. Master had succeeded in raising some such tax; applying it however not for repairs or fortifications but for promoting the sanitation of the Black Town. On his departure the native inhabitants of Black Town petitioned against the tax and the new Governor abolished it. On the 20th September 1682, the Directors wrote to the Government of Madras as follows:—"Our meaning as to the revenue of the town is that one way or another, "by Dutch, Portuguese, or Indian methods, it should be brought to defray at least "the whole constant charge of the place, which is essential to all governments in "the world. People protected ought in all parts of the universe, in some way or "other, to defray the charge of their protection and preservation from wrong and "violence. The manner of raising which revenue we shall leave to your discretion, "as may be most agreeable to the humour of that people." This order was frequently repeated, and Mr. Gyfford was at length compelled to decide that a small monthly tax should be levied on all the inhabitants. The heads of the castes were sent for, and they were told that if they were not willing to pay this tax they must sell their houses and remove elsewhere. They agreed to pay annually "nine "fanams for every great house, six fanams for every small house, and three fanams "for every little round-hou e." The matter nevertheless remained in abeyance till January 1686, when in consequence of peremptory orders from England Mr. Littleton was appointed to collect the tax. A tumult ensued and all shops were shut. To suppress the sedition an armed force was accordingly called out. Proclamation was made that if the heads of the castes did not submit themselves before sunset, their several houses would be pulled down, the ground would be sold, and themselves and their families would be banished the town for ever; and that if the bazaar-people did not open their shops and carry on business as usual, their shops would be confiscated and a fine would be inflicted. The next morning the heads of the castes appeared before the council, and stated that they would not obey their orders; but on perceiving that the latter were determined in the matter, they complied. In 1682 there was a great inundation of the sea at Madras. In the same year the Court of Directors approved of the establishment of a Bank at Madras. At this period special mention is made of the interlopers, or private traders, whom the Company's agents were instructed to seize where practicable. On the 12th December 1687, the population of the city of Madras, Fort St. George, and the villages within the Company's boundaries, was reported in the public letter to the Court of Directors, to be 300,000 persons. In 1687, Pondicherry was established by the French and in 1690 Fort St. David was built by the English.

35. Affairs in connection with Bengal.—Mr. Elihu Yale became Governor in July 1687. The early years of his administration are marked by circumstances

of importance in connection with the general history of India. The head of the Company in England at this time was Sir Josiah Child, who instituted a policy in India which had not before been accepted by the Directors, with a view to taking measures of retaliation against the interlopers and native powers who had interfered with the Company's trade. A force had been sent out consisting of ten ships and about 1,000 European soldiers, Bengal being selected for the first operations. In October 1686 hostilities broke out at Húglí prematurely and before all the forces had arrived in Bengal, owing to a quarrel between some English sailors and the police. The affray became general, and finally Captain Nicholson in command of that portion of the fleet cannonaded the town and committed the greater part of it to the flames. The Nawáb of Bengal was desirous of yielding and coming to some arrangement, and the extent alone of the English demands rendered this impossible. The English then repaired to Sutanatí and fortified themselves there. At Bombay also on the other coast Sir John Child brother of Sir Josiah Child and Governor made successful ventures by sea against the Mughal shipping. These successes were however only temporary, and the English at Sutanatí were forced to retire from that place and establish themselves on the island of Injellí at the mouth of the Húglí, where they suffered much from sickness. The Emperor Aurangzeb now acted himself with vigour against the English. Masulipatam and Vizagapatam were taken with some loss, and the factory at Surat was seized. In 1688 Captain Heath arrived in Bengal in charge of a fleet and with orders to persevere in the war; consequently negotiations that were pending were broken off. All the officers of the Bengal factories including Mr. Job Charnock the Company's Agent in Bengal were embarked on board Captain Heath's ships, and after cannonading Balasor the fleet sailed for Madras and left there the civil establishments. At this moment the English held nothing but their two forts of Bombay and Madras, and in such a position of affairs Aurangzeb might have pressed his advantages. Though master however on land, he was powerless by sea; and considerations connected with the maritime trade and the pilgrimage of Muhammadans to Mecca induced him to come to terms with the English. The factories were restored, and Mr. Charnock returned to Sutanatí; where shortly in the neighbouring village of Calcutta he laid the foundations of the future metropolis of India. In 1688 a mayor and corporation were established in Madras, whose court for the minor administration of justice continued until 1797, when under the presidency of an English Recorder it assumed the title of a Recorder's Court. The Recorder's Court was merged in the Supreme Court of 1801. In 1688 also instructions were sent out for the establishment of a mint. Anxiety was caused at this period by the appearance of English pirates on the Coromandel Coast. To this period also belongs the first appearance of the Armenians in Madras. By a contract made with the Directors of the Company in June 1688, they were invested with certain privileges and rights, and were thus encouraged to reside within the English settlements.

36. The Maráthás.—The affairs of Madras were at this time intimately connected with the Maráthás. The country between the rivers Kistna and Coleroon is known by the general name of the Carnatic. Politically it was divided at this time into a northern and a southern region, which may be distinguished as the Mughal Carnatic and the Maráthá Carnatic. The Mughal Carnatic had been previously a province of the independent Muhammadan State of Golconda and had recently owing to the conquests of Aurangzeb become a province directly under the Mughal; and this included the English settlement at Madras. The Maráthá Carnatic comprised the southern region which had been conquered by Sivají, and included the French settlement at Pondicherry. The frontier between Mughal and Maráthá dominion was formed by the celebrated fortress of Gingee. This was seated on three precipitous hills or rocks about six hundred feet high connected by lines of works, and enclosing a large triangular plain. For many ages it had been regarded as the strongest military post in the Carnatic, and it had once been the stronghold of the Dravidian rulers of Chola. In 1677 it had been captured by the first Sivají. In 1689, it was in the possession of his son Rámarája and was the frontier fortress of the Maráthás against the Mughals. In 1690 Zulfikár Khán commanded the Mughal army in the Carnatic and laid siege to

Gingee. This general, one of the most distinguished persons of his time, was not only in command of the Mughal army in Gingee, but also exercised a powerful influence at court. On a rebellion breaking out in the Mughal army, Mr. Yale supplied Zulfikár Khán with ammunition and rendered other services; as a reward for which he obtained a farmán from the Mughal general, confirming the English Company in the possession of all their settlements in Golconda territory and Gingee territory. In 1691 the Maráthás were still masters of Gingee, Rámarája controlling the whole country from Gingee to the river Coleroon, and so firmly was his power established, that the English when requiring the site of Fort St. David had found it necessary to purchase it from him. In 1692 Zulfikár Khán still besieged Gingee, being accompanied by the youngest son of the Emperor Aurangzeb, named Kambaksh. In December 1692 the Mughals were defeated by the Maráthás and many of the Mughal officers fled to Madras in disguise. This year a farmán was obtained from Zulfikár Khán, granting Egmore, Purasavákam, and Tandúr to the Company rent-free. The villages were afterwards demanded by the Poonamallee Náyak, who alleged that the Nawáb had granted them to himself, and the Agency experienced some difficulty in obtaining possession. Finally however, in March 1694, permission was received from Zulfikár Khán to take possession of these places. In January 1693 an English soldier in the service of Zulfikár Khán returned to Madras bringing news that Kambaksh had essayed to go over to the Maráthás, and had been seized and imprisoned by Zulfikár Khán; and that the camp of the latter having been reduced to starvation from want of provisions, the Mughals had retired to Wandiwash, leaving most of their baggage at the discretion of the Maráthás. In 1696 the Maráthás were found to be increasing their forces at Gingee, and the settlement at Fort St. David were warned to be if possible on good terms with Rámarája and his officers. Later in the same year, Zulfikár Khán sent to Madras to borrow a hundred thousand pagodas, equivalent to above thirty-five thousand pounds sterling. Mr. Nathaniel Higginson, who was Governor of Madras, sent a present, but declined to lend the money; and there was some anticipation that Zulfikár Khán would take reprisals on the town. Eventually in 1697 Zulfikár Khán obtained reinforcements and defeated the Maráthás near Tanjore, and in 1698 he captured Gingee. This general had already himself granted farmáns confirming the English in the possession of their territorial settlements; and he now procured them corresponding farmáns from the Vizier in the Emperor's name. For this a consideration was paid of ten thousand pagodas or nearly four thousand pounds sterling.

37. Affairs to the middle of the Eighteenth Century.—To return to matters more immediately concerning the settlement, in 1689 war had broken out between France and Holland, and in August 1690 the combined Dutch and English fleets fought an indecisive action with the French off Madras. The next year Sir John Goldesborough was sent out to Madras with authority to decide certain disputes between Mr. Elihu Yale and his Council. Directions were given to improve the revenue of Madras by increasing quit-rents, and by imposing a duty on licenses for public houses. The town was to be extended, and a quarter was to be assigned to the Armenians. It was also ordered that the members of the Court of Aldermen should be of different castes, namely "one Armenian, one "or two Hebrews, one or two Portuguese, one or two Gentoos, and one Moor "or Mussalman." The factories at Kúnimedu and Cuddalore were withdrawn. The military establishment at Fort St. George was also retrenched. As a result of the commission at Madras Mr. Nathaniel Higginson became Governor in 1692.

38. In August 1693 the Dutch appeared before Pondicherry with a large fleet, and captured it after a siege of twelve days. In 1694 there was a report of a French equipment of nine ships for India, and it was ordered that additional precautions should be taken at Fort St. George and Fort St. David. Meanwhile the depredations of pirates increased, and trade on the Coromandel Coast was much depressed. In 1697 a petty attack was made on the Company's factory at Anjengo on the Travancore coast. In 1684 the Company had obtained permission from the native Queen of Attunnal to fortify Anjengo, but in November 1697 the same ruler sent a force to eject the English as pirates. The native force was repulsed in two engagements, without loss. About the same time Salím Khán, brother of Dáúd

Khán hereafter to be mentioned, made two attempts upon Cuddalore, both of which were defeated. By the treaty of Ryswick in September 1697 Pondicherry was restored by the Dutch to France.

39. In 1698 Bengal was made independent of Fort St. George. In the same year Mr. Thomas Pitt grandfather of the celebrated Earl of Chatham succeeded Mr. Higginson as Governor of Madras. Disputes now arose between the old or London Company, the lately formed English Company, and the Scotch East India Company originally embodied by King James I in 1617. These led to depression of trade, and the circumstances finally brought about an amalgamation of all traders to India, under the appellation of the 'United East India Company,' established under Queen Anne's Charter in 1702.

40. In 1701 Zulfikár Khán was succeeded by Dáúd Khán as Nawáb or Military Commandant of the Carnatic. The English sent this officer letters and presents. A present valued at seventeen hundred pagodas was given in public, and another of three thousand rupees was given in private. The Nawáb however sent back the presents desiring to receive ten thousand pagodas as his predecessor had done, and he threatened to destroy Madras and establish St. Thomé in its place. Mr. Pitt refused to pay the money, landed men from the merchant ships, increased the train bands, and raised a force of Portuguese. Daud Khán blockaded Madras for three months, but finally received the present. In 1703 renewed attempts were made by the Náyak of Poonamallee to obtain possession of the Company's outlying villages of Egmore, Purasavákam, and Triplicane, which were frustrated by the decided action of the Government. Up to 1703, gunpowder formed one of the articles supplied from England; but about this period the manufacture of it was so much improved at Madras, as to preclude the necessity of sending any more. In 1707 occurred serious disputes between the right and left hand castes or factions, which resulted in the retirement of the former to St. Thomé, but the matter was finally arranged.

41. The administration of Mr. Pitt was distinguished by the establishment of closer relationship with the Court at Delhi. Aurangzeb died in 1707, and the event was followed by a war between his sons. The elder son gained the victory, but being apprehensive lest his rival should find a refuge in Madras, and make his escape to Persia, he sent a letter of conciliation to Mr. Pitt by an influential official. Mr. Pitt, while making a suitable response, asked for a farmán confirming all the privileges which had been granted by Aurangzeb, and the request was granted.

42. Madras was at this time the most important factory possessed by the Company in India. Other factories on the Coromandel Coast were Fort St. David, Cuddalore, Masulipatam, Porto Novo, Madapollam, and Vizagapatam. On the Western Coast the Company possessed the island of Bombay, with factories at Surat, Broach, Ahmadábád, Suwáli, Anjengo, Kárwár, Tellicherry, and Calicut. In Bengal they had Fort William, and Sutanatí or Calcutta, with factories at Patna, Malda, Dacca, Balasor, Rájmahál and Kásimbázár. The English paid their yearly rent of twelve hundred pagodas to the Nawáb of the Carnatic. The Nawáb was subordinate to the Nizám of the Deccan, now styled the Nizám of Haidarábád; and paid a yearly tribute to the latter. In 1738–39, the power of the Mughal King or Pádisháh received a severe blow from the Persian invasion under Nádir Sháh, and from that date the provinces began once more to grow independent of the Court at Delhi. The Nizám of the Deccan of this period is best known by his title of Nizám-ul-Mulk, or "Regulator of the State." He had served in the armies of Aurangzeb and had filled important posts in the Court at Delhi, had been appointed to the government of all the Mughal conquests in the Deccan, and had engaged in frequent wars against the Maráthás of Poona to the west, and those of Berar to the northward. His dominion extended from the river Gódávari southward to the river Kistna, and was bounded on the west by the Maráthás of Poona; on the north by the Maráthás of Berar; on the east by the Bay of Bengal. The province of the Nawáb of the Carnatic lay to the south of the Nizám's dominions. It extended from the river Kistna southwards to the river Coleroon, being bounded on the north by the Nizám's territory; on

the west by the Mysore country; on the south by the Hindu kingdoms of Trichinopoly and Tanjore; on the east by the Bay of Bengal.

43. The list of Governorships down to that of Mr. Nicholas Morse in 1743 is not distinguished by any events of special interest.

44. THE FRENCH IN INDIA.—The first establishment of the French in India dates as far back as 1668. From 1503 to that period, various attempts had been made to obtain for France the commerce of this part of the world, but without success. The French first adventured to India in 1601, when two ships were fitted out from St. Maloes, under the command of Lieutenant Bardelieu. They were both lost off the Maldives before reaching their destination. In 1604 Henry IV incorporated the first French East India Company with a Charter for fifteen years. Colbert did not however allow himself to be discouraged by the fruitless results of efforts prolonged for more than a century and a half. In 1664 he re-established on a better and more extensive basis the East India Company which Cardinal Richelieu had created twenty-two years before. The monopoly of the trade for fifty years was accorded to this Company, which soon collected funds to the amount of 15 millions of francs. In the commencement it displayed great activity. Two successive expeditions were undertaken for the purpose of renewing the attempts at colonization before made in Madagascar; but these expeditions having failed, the Company renounced the projects which they had formed for Madagascar, and a direct commerce with India was again undertaken and continued with spirit. In 1668 a merchant of French origin named Caron, an active and well experienced man, became chief of the East India Company. He first selected Surat, but this town, though flourishing and well situated, did not realize the idea which he had formed for the chief establishment in India. He was desirous of having a port in a place where spices grew; and the Bay of Trincomalí in the island of Ceylon appearing to him the most eligible spot, he took it from the Dutch, then at war with France. These however were not long in repossessing themselves of it, and Caron then passed to the Coromandel Coast. He there took in 1672 St. Thomé, which had been in the possession of the Dutch for twelve years; but in 1674 the Dutch again compelled the French to restore this conquest to them. This event would have effected the ruin of the Company, whose affairs had been for some time in a distressed condition, if one of its agents named François Martin had not collected the wrecks of the colonies of Ceylon and St. Thomé, composed of 60 Frenchmen, to people the small town of Pondicherry; which as well as the surrounding territory he had purchased in 1674 with the funds of the Company from the Governor of Gingee, then superintending all Sivají's conquests in the Carnatic The country was however nominally subject to the Deccaní king of Bijápur. Martin fortified Pondicherry, and by his superior administration the small colony prospered and soon gave the best hopes of success. The Dutch attacked it in 1693; Martin, after defending himself there with great courage, was compelled to capitulate, and on the 5th September 1693, the town was given up. By the treaty of Ryswick, Pondicherry was restored to the French in 1697, who received it from the hands of the Dutch in a much better state than when they yielded it to them. In 1699 this town became the capital of the French possessions in India. The able administration of Martin succeeded in making it the centre of a rich commerce, and one of the most important towns which Europeans possessed in Asia. A number of Frenchmen soon spread themselves on the Indian continent and formed new factories. Chandranagar in Bengal was ceded by Aurangzeb to the French East India Company in 1688. In 1727 this Company obtained the cession of Mahé. In 1739 it purchased Kárikál from the king of Tanjore. And in 1752 Yanam and Masulipatam, which the French had two years before seized, were definitely ceded to them. The Governors-General of the French establishment in India, Messieurs Dumas and Dupleix, contributed greatly from 1735 to 1754 to the prosperity of these possessions. Amongst other advantageous concessions, M. Dumas obtained from the Great Mughal the privilege of coining money at Pondicherry, which gave to the Company a yearly income of about 500,000 livres, or £20,000. M. Dupleix, appointed in 1730 Governor of Chandranagar, succeeded in less than twelve years in making that place one of great commercial importance. The town of Pondicherry, the government of which was confided to the same

officer in 1742, together with that of the other establishments, was equally indebted to him. It was under his government that the French possessions and power in the East Indies attained their highest growth.

45. Wars between the French and English.—Meanwhile and until the end of the first half of the eighteenth century the English had carried on their trading operations tolerably unmolested in the midst of the continual wars between the Musalmán and Maráthá conquerors of the old southern Hindu powers. The affairs of the French and English between the breaking out of the first war in 1744 and the final overthrow of Lally at Pondicherry by Coote in 1761, sixteen memorable years for both parties, cannot berelated in detail here for lack of space. The European war broke out in 1744. Before that however, indeed as early as 1741, the French ministry sent an armament to India under M. Labourdonnais, who, already distinguished by his talents and by his successful government of Bourbon and the Mauritius, was also intimately acquainted with the politics and resources of India. He was to watch the progress of events in Europe, and be ready to act against the English in case war should be declared. These preparations were known to the English ministry, who in order to check them sent a squadron of four ships to India under Commodore Barnet. That officer for some time cruised successfully in the Straits of Sunda, and after the declaration of war proceeded to the Coromandel Coast. The French Governor at Pondicherry was then M. Dupleix, the English Governor at Madras was Mr. Nicholas Morse. The English troops in the Presidency numbered only 600. On the 4th September Labourdonnais attacked Madras. On the 10th it capitulated, and the generosity of Labourdonnais not being equalled by that of Dupleix, the English Governor and merchants were sent as prisoners to Pondicherry. Mr. Charles Floyer at Cuddalore assumed charge of the English settlements. Cuddalore itself was twice attacked by the French, and twice escaped. In 1747 reinforcements having arrived from England, the English in turn besieged Pondicherry, with Admiral Boscawen on sea and Major Stringer Lawrence on land. Ensign Clive distinguished himself at this siege, which however was raised. The peace of Aix-la-Chapelle took place in 1748, and the arrangements consequent on it reached India at the end of 1749, when Madras was restored to the English. The French, during the four years they occupied it, had considerably improved the fort, by enlarging and strengthening the bastions and batteries. They had also demolished that part of Black Town immediately adjoining the north wall of the fort, and formed an excellent glacis. Another glacis had also been cleared to the south. The defences, however, were considered far less strong than those at Fort St. David.

46. The European war being thus ended, the forces of the two powers were under the necessity of finding occupation and profit in the various wars between the native princes. It usually happened that their sympathies or their interests were enlisted on opposite sides. The campaigns of the Nawábs Zulfikár Khán and Dáúd Khán in the Carnatic, during the reign of Aurangzeb, have been already noticed. On leaving the Carnatic under orders from the Emperor the latter had appointed Sádat Ulla as his deputy, who governed the provinces from 1710 to his death in 1732 with much moderation and ability. On his demise his nephew Dost Alí Khán assumed the government of the Carnatic, as it were independently; for it does not appear that the Emperor of Delhi the nominal superior, or Nizám ul Mulk of Haidarábád the real superior, were consulted at all. Dost Alí had one son, Safdar Alí; and had married two daughters, one to Murtizá Alí Khán, the other to Chanda Sáhib. At this juncture the Maráthás under Raghují Bhonsla invaded the Carnatic, and in an action with them Dost Alí was killed. Safdar Alí now made terms with Raghují, and, on condition of the payment of one hundred lakhs of rupees was recognised as Nawáb of the Carnatic. But meanwhile Safdar's brother-in-law Chanda Sáhib, on pretext of assisting the widowed Rání, had obtained possession of Trichinopoly; and Safdar was too weak to attack him. Raghují therefore returned to the Carnatic after his visit to Sátára in 1741 and besieged Trichinopoly, when Chanda Sáhib was obliged to capitulate, and as a measure of safety was sent to Sátára. During these transactions however Chanda Sáhib had placed his wife and family in the French settlement of Pondicherry, under the charge of M. Dupleix the Governor; and this act led

subsequently to strange and important events. In a year after his assumption of the Government, Safdar Alí was assassinated by his second brother-in-law Murtazá Alí, who was proclaimed Nawáb; but the family of Safdar Alí had obtained protection in the English factory of Madras, and his son, a minor, was also proclaimed as successor to his father. To put an end to these convulsions Nizám ul Mulk marched from Haidarábád in 1743 at the head of an overwhelming force, and setting aside the claims of the pretenders Chanda Sáhib and Murtazá Alí appointed one Anwar-ud-dín to the Government of the province during the minority of the son of Safdar Alí. The young Nawáb was however assassinated a few years later, and Anwar-ud-dín became Nawáb of the Carnatic, and was thus the founder of the family which still exists. These remarks will explain the relations which existed between Anwar-ud-dín and Chanda Sáhib. The former had attached himself to the English, the latter to the French. The former though short-lived transmitted his attachment for the English to his son Muhammad Alí. The last-named ruler was indeed called "the Company's Nawáb." Again when Nizám ul Mulk died in 1748, he was succeeded by his son Nazir Jang; but the title was disputed by Musafir Jang, the son of a deceased elder brother of Nazir Jang. In this also the direct claimant looked to the English, and his opponent looked to the French. The Maráthás at this time still held supreme power in Tanjore and the adjacent country. The English first in 1749 assisted a claimant to the Maráthá throne of Tanjore, against a relative and were rewarded by the cession of the town of Devakóttai. Then in the same year the French took up the cause of Chanda Sáhib, in alliance with Musafir Jang; the double aim being to secure for these claimants the Nawábships of Arcot and the Subadári of Haidarábád. Opposed to them were Anwar-ud-dín, the then Nawáb, and Nazir Jang, the then Nizám, who had just succeeded. Musafir Jang succeeded in securing the throne of the Nizám, and the triumph of the French under Dupleix was wholly complete until Clive appeared upon the scene and to a large extent changed the course of the war. Clive seized Arcot, the capital of the Carnatic, on the 30th August 1751; while Chanda Sáhib and the French were besieging Muhammad Alí, the son of Anwar-ud-dín recently killed in action in Trichinopoly. Clive himself was besieged in turn; but repulsed all attacks and followed up his success by the victory of Arní, which virtually placed the Carnatic once more under the ally of the English, Muhammad Alí; although the siege of Trichinopoly was not formally raised until the French detachment, which had retreated to Srírangam, surrendered to him and Major Lawrence in June 1752. Chanda Sáhib was eventually assassinated by a Maráthá, probably at the instigation of Muhammad Alí. Musafir Jang retained the Nizámship, under French protection for a brief while; and dying in action when engaged with some feudatories, was succeeded by Salábat Jang, a son of Nizám ul Mulk, also placed on the throne by the French.

47. A quarrel next broke out between Muhammad Alí and Nanjaráj, the minister of the Rájá of Mysore. The assistance of the latter in the recent war had been procured by the Nawáb by means of a promise to cede Trichinopoly if he were victorious, but when he had attained the object of his wishes he declined to fulfil his agreement. Nanjaráj then had recourse to force, and though the English at first hesitated to assist the Nawáb under such circumstances the conduct of Nanjaráj in other matters left them no alternative but to treat him as an enemy. The French supported the Mysorean; and a succession of engagements took place, chiefly in the immediate vicinity of Trichinopoly, in which the English were almost uniformly successful. The recall of Dupleix on the 14th October 1754 led to a cessation of hostilities, but the English continued to aid the Nawáb of the Carnatic in the internal management of his dominions; the Nizám Salábat Jang receiving similar assistance from the French under M. Bussy.

48. The theatre of action was then for some time transferred to Bengal, where Clive took command of the English army; but hostilities recommenced in Southern India in 1757 as soon as it was known that war had again broken out in Europe between the French and English. The French took advantage of the English forces being dispersed in various expeditions, and made an unsuccessful attack on Trichinopoly; while another detachment succeeded in gaining possession

of Vizagapatam. In 1758 a French fleet appeared off Fort St. David, and that fort fell on the 2nd June. Devakóttai was next reduced, and the French commander Count de Lally made a triumphal entry into Pondicherry. But here his success ended for the time, and an expedition against Tanjore resulted in complete failure. In December however he again besieged Madras itself. On the 9th December Colonel Lawrence who commanded the English withdrew all his outposts to "Choultry Plain," and on the 12th into the Fort. The attempts made by the English forces in the interior, to assist Madras during this siege, were ineffectual. In fact almost all the English troops were in the Fort. Captain Preston however with Muhammad Yusaf a Muhammadan partizan of the British, made an attack on the French quarters at St. Thomé in January. Owing to the cowardice of the division under Muhammad Yusaf, though he personally made great exertions, this failed, and Preston fell back on Arcot to raise fresh levies. Major Calliaud also came up in February with a detachment from the south, accompanied by several of the Nawáb's troops; and on the 7th a sharp engagement took place at the Mount, the French having unsuccessfully attacked Calliaud's position. Calliaud however was obliged to fall back on Chingleput. This siege was raised two months afterwards when an English fleet appeared in the roads. In the meantime the English arms under Colonel Forde were progressing satisfactorily towards the north, where Clive had sent a detachment to operate in the Northern Circars, ere this was ceded by the Nizám to the French. Their successes culminated in the fall of Masulipatam on the 7th April, by which the French influence with the Nizám was destroyed, and a tract of territory around Masulipatam extending eighty miles along the coast and twenty miles inland was ceded by him to the English. The operations in the south were of a minor nature until 22nd January 1760, when the French under Lally were completely defeated at Wandiwash, near Arcot, by Colonel Coote who had arrived with reinforcements from England. This was followed by the capture within a fortnight of Gingee and Arcot. Minor forts fell in succession, and by May the English were in a position to lay siege to Pondicherry. Lally then had recourse to the services of Haidar Alí, an adventurer who subsequently usurped supreme power in Mysore, but at that time merely held high military command under the Rájá. An English detachment sent to meet the Mysoreans was defeated, and the situation of the English might have become critical had not affairs at home recalled the Mysore troops to their own country. Deprived of the aid of the Mysoreans the French cause soon became hopeless, and on the 16th January 1761 Pondicherry surrendered. With this event the French power in the Carnatic virtually ended. By the peace of Paris in 1763, Pondicherry was restored to the French, but with a territory less extensive. Mahé, Kárikál, Chandarnagar, and other factories in Bengal were in like manner restored, but they were not occupied before 1765.

49. The first Mysore War.—So far as the English were concerned there were no more military operations in Southern India until 1766, beyond granting such aid as was from time to time necessary to enable the Nawáb of the Carnatic to repress insurrection. Negotiations were carried on with the Nizám of Haiderábád for the cession of the Northern Circars, but with no very satisfactory results; and in 1765 Sanads transferring these tracts to the Company were obtained direct from the Emperor of Delhi, whose paramount authority was recognized by the Nizám. The Madras Government however hesitated to avail themselves of the powers thus assigned to them except with the consent of the Nizám; and in 1766, although sending a body of troops to secure their possession, they entered into a treaty with the Nizám, agreeing to pay tribute for the Circars and to defend the Nizám against his enemies. In the meantime the Mysore adventurer, Haidar Alí, had succeeded, not only in obtaining supreme power in that province, but in extending his dominion on all sides; and the English were speedily called on under the treaty to assist the Nizám and the Maráthás in checking the advance made in the direction of their territories. No sooner however had operations commenced than Haidar Alí, by judicious expenditure of treasure, not only bought off the Maráthás, but even induced the Nizám to desert his allies and join him in a descent upon the Carnatic. Colonel Smith, who commanded the English troops, finding himself thus opposed to a force very much larger than his own, commenced a

retreat, followed by the allies who overtook him at Chengam. The English repulsed the attack thus made, but were compelled to continue their retreat to Triuvannámalai. On being attacked at that place the victory of the English was decisive, the troops of Haidar and of the Nizám retreating in the utmost confusion; while bands of marauding horse, who had been plundering the country up to the very gate of Madras under the command of Haidar's son Típú, a boy of seventeen, considered their situation to be no longer secure, and drew off to rejoin the rest of the army. Colonel Smith however was too weak to follow up his victory, and withdrew his troops into cantonment for the rains, which were now at hand. Haidar at once took advantage of this inaction to reduce a few unimportant fortresses, but his movements were checked at the hill fort of Ambúr; where Captain Calvert, with a garrison of five hundred sepoys and fifteen Europeans, defied the utmost efforts of Haidar's armies for nearly a month, when he was relieved by Colonel Smith on the 7th December 1767. Haidar then drew off, and after a few skirmishes he retired above the gháts, having learned that an expedition from Bombay had captured his fleet in the harbours of Canara and commenced hostile operations in his territories on the Western Coast. Risking an invasion from the east, Haidar hurried over to meet what to him seemed the more imminent danger, and appeared suddenly before Mangalore in such force as to compel the re-embarkation of the expedition. In the meantime, though very imperfectly informed of Haidar's actual movements, the Madras Government resolved to commence offensive operations; and one body of troops under Colonel Wood proceeded to reduce the fortresses under the south-eastern slopes of the gháts, while another entered Mysore proper under Colonel Smith. The movements of both detachments were at first uniformly successful, but as soon as they had united in August 1768, with the view of attacking Bangalore, Haidar returned from the Western Coast and made an attack on the camp of a Maráthá contingent; a movement which though unsuccessful was sufficient to show that it would not be possible to reduce Bangalore unless a decisive victory could be first obtained over Haidar in the field. Various marches and counter-marches were undertaken with this object, but in vain; and after reconquering a number of the fortified places on the tableland, Haidar descended into the lowland by passes unknown to the English, and retook the fortresses in Coimbatore, the Báramahál, and Salem, which in almost all cases had been left inadequately supplied with troops. He did not however risk an engagement in the field with Colonel Smith; and a treaty was concluded on the 4th April 1769, on the basis of a mutual restitution of conquests with the exception of Karúr, which was ceded to Haidar on the ground of its being an ancient dependency of Mysore.

50. The Second Mysore War.—From the date of this treaty until the year 1780 the military operations in the south of India, other than the usual duties of assisting the Nawáb of the Carnatic in keeping peace in his own dominions and in his disputes with the Tanjore Rájá, consisted in the capture of Pondicherry from the French in 1778, and the reduction of the French settlement of Mahé on the Western Coast in 1779. These events were a consequence of the renewed war in Europe between France and England. Sir Hector Munro was the English commander; and the Governor was M. de Bellcombe, who made an obstinate defence. The garrison consisted of 3,000 men, of whom 900 were Europeans; the besieging army of 10,500 men, of whom 1,500 were Europeans. The war which broke out again with Haidar in 1780 arose from the fact that the Nawáb of the Carnatic failed to furnish the supplies necessary to enable the English to fulfil the stipulations of the treaty of 1769. Haidar succeeded in forming an alliance with the Nizám and the Maráthás, and descended on the plains of the Carnatic in July 1780, burning crops and devastating villages; so that a cordon of blackened desert was formed around Madras, commencing at the lake of Pulicat, extending some fifty miles inland, and terminating a little to the north of Pondicherry. Sir Hector Munro proceeded to Conjeeveram, and directed Colonel Baillie to join him there with troops from the north. Haidar endeavoured to prevent the junction, and Sir Hector Munro seeing that Colonel Baillie was in danger, sent a detachment under Colonel Fletcher to his aid; which successfully eluded the enemy, and joined Colonel Baillie on the 9th September, only to be included however in the general massacre

which took place when Colonel Baillie's force was attacked by overwhelming numbers on the following day. Sir Hector Munro considered Conjeeveram no longer tenable when he heard the news of this disaster, and commenced a retreat to Madras; which he reached on the 14th September, leaving the field open to Haidar. On receipt of the intelligence at Calcutta, the Governor-General Warren Hastings suspended Mr. John Whitehill the Governor of Madras, and despatched Sir Eyre Coote with reinforcements. The latter arrived on the 1st November 1780, but was unable to take the field until the 17th January 1781. On the 19th he relieved Chingleput, and on the 21st retook Karunguzhi; which had the effect of raising the siege of Wandiwash, a place defended with great distinction by Lieutenant Flint. Hearing of the arrival of a French fleet off Pondicherry, Sir Eyre Coote proceeded to that place, but, finding that the fleet had brought no land forces, he turned his attention to the protection of Cuddalore. Haidar had followed him down the coast, but moved off when the English general offered battle; probably considering it better to weaken the force by cutting off supplies, from the want of which the English army had already experienced considerable difficulty. Thus hampered, the troops remained almost inactive until the 18th June, when an ineffectual attempt was made to capture Chidambaram. The news of this failure emboldened Haidar to make a decisive attempt to annihilate the English army, and he accordingly advanced and took up a position close to Sir Eyre Coote's camp at Porto Novo, a small town on the coast about 14 miles south of Cuddalore. The battle commenced early on the morning of the 1st July 1781, an English fleet lying close in shore with the view of enabling the embarkation of the remnant of the army in the contingency of its being defeated in an encounter with an enemy eight times its numerical superior. The battle was long and severe, but by four o'clock in the afternoon the enemy were in precipitate retreat. The want of proper equipment rendered Sir Eyre Coote unable to take full advantage of the victory which he had gained, but he succeeded in again relieving Wandiwash on the 18th July; after which he proceeded northwards and joined a detachment from Bengal at Pulicat, having eluded the force sent to intercept him by adopting a line of march hitherto supposed impassable for troops. Thus reinforced he marched against the fortress of Tiruppásúr and procured its surrender on the 22nd August, shortly before Haidar's relieving army appeared on the field. A general action took place on the 27th; but with no very decisive result, though the English kept possession on the field. A month later, on the 27th of September, the English commander surprised the enemy near Sholinghur and gained such a victory as put him in a position to throw provisions into Vellore; which had been defended from the commencement of the war against the finest troops and strongest batteries which Haidar's resources could furnish. In November the English army retired for the monsoon to Madras, where it remained until the following January, when it had once more to advance to the relief of Vellore. Haidar then turned his attention to Cuddalore, and succeeded in reducing it with the assistance of a French contingent which had landed at Porto Novo. The reduction of Perumákovil by Haidar followed, but Sir Eyre Coote once more arrived in time to save Wandiwash. In the meantime war had broken out with the Dutch as well as with the French, and the Dutch settlements of Sadras, Pulicat, and Negapatam had been captured. A portion of the force employed for the reduction of the latter place was subsequently detached under Colonel Brathwaite to operate in Tanjore. Deceived by the spies, the small force was suddenly surrounded by superior numbers under Haidar's son, Típú, and only a small remnant escaped with their lives. To counterbalance this, a rebellion had broken out in Malabar, and a small force of English sent to their aid gained a considerable victory at Tellicherry, which necessitated the immediate despatch of Típú to the Western Coast; and Haidar Alí, considering himself overmatched by Sir Eyre Coote, determined to quit the Coromandel Coast. The English commander then returned with his army to Madras, and General Stuart assumed the command in his place. The English force on the Western Coast was scarcely strong enough successfully to oppose that brought against it, but the news of the death of Haidar at Chittoor on the 7th December 1782 led to Típú's speedy return to the head-quarters of the principal army; thereby leaving the field open to the English, who were shortly afterwards reinforced by a considerable number of troops from Bombay under General Matthews. Several places on the

coast fell in rapid succession, and eventually the English penetrated to Bednor above the gháts. Here however their success ended, Típú returning and compelling the surrender of the place on the 3rd May; after which he marched to the siege of Mangalore, where a small fort was in the occupation of Colonel Campbell. The garrison of this place was insignificant and the material defences of the place equally so, but Típú was unable to take it by assault and his large army remained for many months practically inactive, while his French allies under M. Bussy were being besieged in Cuddalore. On the receipt of the news of the conclusion of peace between France and England, an armistice was agreed upon under which Típú was bound to provision the garrison of Mangalore. He however supplied provisions which were unfit for consumption, and the garrison, broken down by famine and sickness, capitulated on the 30th January 1784; the health of the commander being so undermined that he expired on the 23rd March following. After much delay, peace was ultimately concluded on the 10th March on the basis of a mutual restoration of conquests. During this war many of the English prisoners, including General Matthews, were put to death by Típú.

51. The Third Mysore War.—After the conclusion of peace with the English, Tipú seized about thirty thousand of the Christians of Canara, forcibly converted them to Muhammadanism, and deported them to the country above the gháts. Subsequently, rebellions of the Náyars of Malabar on account of a similar exercise of religious zeal in that portion of his territory led to expeditions for their suppression; and many of the Náyars having taken refuge in Travancore, Típú resolved to invade that country in their pursuit, notwithstanding an intimation that such a proceeding would involve him in another war with the English. His first attempt to enter Travancore ended in failure. A second was more successful, and the country was overrun; but, on his return to Coimbatore, Típú found an English army in the field at Trichinopoly under the command of General Medows, the Governor of Madras, who had also entered into alliances with the Maráthás and the Nizám. Tipú at first withdrew to Seringapatam, which he had established as the capital of his dominions; and the English met with little opposition in the reduction of the various forts along the south-eastern slopes of the gháts until the 7th September, when their army was attacked by a force commanded by Típú in person, which had descended by the Gejalhatti pass. The attack was repulsed, but General Medows' efforts to bring on a general action were evaded by Tipú; and nothing but indecisive skirmishes took place, until the Governor-General, Lord Cornwallis, took the field in person, and assuming the command on the 29th January 1791, at once commenced preparations for a march upon Bangalore, concentrating his army at Vellore. Típú hastened to intercept his advance, which he expected would be made by the passes near Ambúr, but the demonstration in that direction was a faint, and the tableland was reached by the more northerly pass of Mugli without a shot being fired. The petta or town of Bangalore fell early in March, and on the night of the 20th the fort was taken by assault after a severe contest of little over an hour. While these operations were going on in Mysore, Colonel Hartly from the Madras side had defeated the Sultán's troops near Calicut; and General Abercrombie, Governor of Bombay, had landed at Tellicherry with a considerable force, and reduced Cannanore without encountering much opposition. But little difficulty was met with in the operations in that neighbourhood, and within a very short time the whole of Malabar was in the occupation of the English. Operations on a smaller scale were conducted in the north in concert with the Maráthás and the Nizám, the latter having also despatched a body of about ten thousand horse to join Lord Cornwallis' army.

52. On the 4th of May the English army left Bangalore to march against Seringapatam; but the route was so difficult, the means of transport was so limited, and the devastation of the country by Típú had been so well carried out, that notwithstanding a successful engagement at Arakere only nine miles from Seringapatam, Lord Cornwallis was compelled to abandon his plan of operations for the time and retire to the vicinity of Bangalore, where he occupied himself for some time in reducing the hill forts. The Nizám's troops and the Maráthás having marched from the north and reinforced his army with both men and supplies, Lord Cornwallis again appeared before the walls of Seringapatam on the 5th February

1792. On the night of the 6th, the outlying encampment and redoubts were carried and the city closely invested on two sides. Preparations were made for the vigorous conduct of the siege, and on the 16th the army was joined by that of General Abercrombie from Malabar. A few days previously Típú had made overtures for peace; but the negotiations did not lead to a cessation of preparations for the siege, and it was evident that the fall of Seringapatam was close at hand when on the 24th February orders was issued for the discontinuance of all hostilities. Peace had been agreed upon on the basis of a cession to the allies of one-half of the dominions of which Típú was in possession before the war, the payment of three crores and thirty lakhs of rupees, and the restitution of all prisoners including those retained from the time of Haidar. Under this treaty the English came into possession of the Bárámahál, Dindigul, Malábar, and Coorg; the latter being restored to the Rájá, who had rendered essential aid to the English in the course of the war.

53. Though thus severely disabled, Típú was not rendered completely powerless. He lost no time in commencing a series of intrigues with the view of engaging to his side those who had been the allies of the English, and even despatched an embassy to Paris asking for the assistance of the French. His overtures being rejected by Louis XVI, he renewed them after the revolution had broken out, and a contingent of ninety-nine men from the Mauritius landed at Mangalore in 1798. The aid thus received was insignificant, but the object of applying for it was manifest, and the Governor-General Lord Mornington resolved to act at once rather than wait till Típú had matured his plans. Instructions were despatched for the immediate adoption of such measures as were necessary to place the Madras army on a satisfactory footing, and an alliance was entered into with the Nizám. The object of the Governor-General was to obtain possession of the maritime territory still under Típú, and thus preclude him from communication with the French; and before commencing the war, an opportunity was afforded him of averting it by timely concession. But the efforts at negotiation were ineffectual, and offensive operations were determined on. The army of the Carnatic was placed under the command of General Harris, while another force from Malabar under General Stuart ascended into Coorg early in March 1799. Típú directed his first efforts against this latter army, but was beaten at Siddheswar near Periyapatna, and in the meantime General Harris and the Nizám's troops crossed the Mysore frontier. Típú turned to meet them, and was defeated with severe loss in a general action at Malvalli on the 27th March. He then retired to Seringapatam, and the allies advanced to the siege, which lasted for a month before a practicable breach was made. The assault commenced at one o'clock on the 4th May, and before evening Típú was dead, and the whole town was in the possession of the English. The dynasty of Haidar and Típú having practically come to an end with the fall of the latter, the settlement of the country was effected by the restoration of Mysore proper to the representative of the ancient royal family whose rights had been usurped by Haidar. The greater part of the remainder was then divided between the English and the Nizám, the districts of Canara, Coimbatore, and Wynaad falling to the share of the former. A portion was also reserved for the Peshwa, with the view to its forming a basis for a new treaty with the Maráthá empire. Arrangements were at the same time made by which Mysore should be precluded from again becoming a great military power, and it was stipulated that the heads of all the passes on the tableland should remain in perpetuity in the hands of the British.

54. Summary of the Acquisitions made in different parts of the Presidency.—The military history of the Madras Presidency ceases with the treaty of 1799; all subsequent addition of territory, with one exception, having been peacefully acquired. The following is a brief summary of all the territorial acquisitions made in the south. A trading settlement was established at Masulipatam in 1611, and in 1639 and in 1690 Forts St. George and St. David were built at Madras and Tegnapatam respectively by the permission of the ruling Hindu princes. The fort of Tellicherry in Malabar was similarly established in 1683. The first footing in Tanjore was gained by the cession of Devakóttai in 1749, as a reward for assistance rendered to a successful claimant to the throne. The Nizáms Mirzapha Jang and

Salábat Jang had ceded Masulipatam and portions of the Northern Circars to the French; but, on the capture of Masulipatam by the English in 1759, the influence of the French was broken, and the town of Masulipatam and a considerable tract of the surrounding territory was made over to the English. In 1765 sanads ceding the whole of the Northern Circars were obtained direct from the Emperor of Delhi, but the Madras Government thought it more politic to obtain the consent of the Nizám also, and in 1768 the five Circars of Ellore, Chicacole, Rajahmundry, Mustafanagar, and Murtuzánagar or Guntur were ceded by treaty on the English agreeing to pay an annual subsidy of nine lakhs, or to furnish military assistance when required. The Dutch settlements of Pulicat, Sadras, and Negapatam were annexed in 1781. The earlier wars with Haidar and Típú were concluded with a peace on the basis of mutual restitution of territory, but by the treaty of 1792 the districts of Malabar and Salem and the Dindigul division of Madura were acquired by the English, and on the partition of Tipú's territory in 1799 the districts of Canara and Coimbatore fell to the share of the British Government. During the wars of the eighteenth century the English more than once interfered in the disputes between the Rájá of Tanjore and the Nawáb of the Carnatic, and in 1778 a treaty was concluded by which Nagore and 277 villages were ceded to the Company. The internal affairs of the Tanjore kingdom continued to proceed from bad to worse, and after a turbulent period of disputed succession the rightful claimant to the throne, on being put into power in 1799, executed a treaty resigning the administration of the kingdom into the hands of the British, on the understanding that he would receive a provision of one lakh of pagodas and one-fifth of the net revenues. The titular dignity became extinct in 1855 through failure of heirs. In 1800 a new treaty was entered into with the Nizám of the Deccan, by which a considerable increase was made in the British Subsidiary Force, on account of which the Nizám ceded all the territories he had acquired by the Mysore treaties of 1792 and 1799, together with the taluk of Ádóni and all other taluks situated to the south of the rivers Tungabhadra and Kistna. These are known by the name of the Ceded Districts, and comprise the provinces of Bellary and Cuddapah. The English having in all the earlier wars of the peninsula supported the cause of Muhammad Alí, Nawáb of the Carnatic, and having in fact secured him both the original possession of his kingdom and the power of retaining it, the revenues of the Carnatic were looked to for the defrayal of the expenses of the wars, and with this view the present district of Chingleput, then known as the Jágír, was made over to the Company in 1763. This was rented to the Nawáb for some time, but in 1780 the British Government took the management into their own hands. As new wars arose fresh agreements were made, and a series of treaties were executed culminating in that of 1792, three years before the death of Muhammad Alí and the accession of Umdat-ul-Umra, by which the Nawáb agreed to pay a large subsidy, and, in order to secure punctual payment, the English were authorized to collect tribute direct from a large number of the pálegárs or local chiefs. In the event of the balance not being paid, the English were further authorized to assume the management of certain specified districts. In accordance with this treaty, tribute was collected throughout a great part of the Tinnevelly and Madura districts, and in 1795 the Company assumed the entire management of the Ramnad division of the present district of Madura. On the fall of Seringapatam in 1799 it was discovered that both Muhammad Alí and Umdat-ul-Umra had been carrying on a treasonable correspondence with Mysore, and the treaty of 1792 having thus been infringed, the British Government resolved to assume the entire management of the Carnatic, and proposed a treaty for the purpose. Umdat-ul-Umra having died before arrangements were concluded, and his reputed son Alí Husain having rejected the terms offered him, another grandson of Muhammad Alí named Azím-ud-Daula, was declared his successor, and an arrangement was entered into on the 31st July 1801, by which he resigned the government of the country into the hands of the British, retaining the titular dignity and receiving a liberal stipend. The effect of this treaty was to bring under British rule the whole of the country from the Northern Circars to Cape Comorin, with the exception of the French Settlements of Pondicherry and Kárikál and the Danish settlement of Tranquebar. The titular dignity of Nawáb of the Carnatic was continued until 1855, when there was a failure of direct heirs.

The present representative of the family bears the title of Prince of Arcot, and has the position of the first native nobleman of Madras. In 1838 internal mismanagement and suspicion of treasonable intrigue on the part of the Nawáb of Kurnool led to the occupation of his territory by an armed force and to its subsequent annexation. Tranquebar was ceded by the Danes in 1845. The district of North Canara was transferred from this Presidency to the Bombay Presidency in 1862.

55. Recent Events.—Since the beginning of the present century, Madras has known no regular war. But over such a wide area of territory occasional disturbances have called for measures of military repression. The pálegárs or local chieftains in the south long adhered to their independence after their country was ceded to the British. On the west coast, the feudal aristocracy of the Náyars and the religious fanaticism of the Máppillas have more than once led to rebellion and bloodshed. In the extreme north, the wild tribes occupying the hills of Ganjám and Vizagapatam have only lately learned the habit of subordination. In 1836, the zamíndárí of Gumsúr in this remote tract was attached by Government for the rebellious conduct of its chief. An inquiry then instituted revealed the wide prevalence among the tribe of Khonds of human sacrifice, under the name of meriah. The practice has since been suppressed by a special agency. As lately as 1879 the country round Rampa on the northern frontier was the scene of riots sufficiently serious to lead to the necessity of calling out troops.

CHAPTER III.

GENERAL FORM OF ADMINISTRATION.

1. The Governor in Council.—The administration of the Madras Presidency is vested in a Governor with a Council of three Members, one of whom is the Commander-in-Chief for the time being, while the two others are Members of the Covenanted Civil Service. This body forms the Executive Government of the Presidency, its orders issuing as those of the 'Governor in Council.' The Commander-in-Chief is Second in Council, but the Senior Civilian Member presides in the absence of the Governor. The appointment of the Ordinary Members of Council is made by the Queen. On the occurrence of a vacancy from different causes, the Governor in Council can appoint any person as a temporary member of Council; provided that the person so appointed would be eligible for the permanent appointment. Additional Members (one being the Advocate-General 'ex-officio') are added to the number for purposes of legislation under the authority of the Governor; particulars regarding their appointment are given in Chapter VII. The cabinet system of administration, under which each Member of the Executive Council deals with separate subjects and refers special cases only to the whole Council, is carried out in a certain degree. It does not prevail to the same extent as in the Governor-General's Council, and still less to the same extent as in a European cabinet. The Governor has a casting vote in case of an equal division in the Council, and he can in exceptional cases set aside the opinion of the Council arrived at by majority. Correspondence with the Government of India is conducted by letter through the Secretariat. The Government communicates direct with the Secretary of State in certain cases. Subjects of importance, grants of pensions to Civil Servants and Military Officers, appointments to the higher offices, vacancies and retirements, with certain other subjects, are reported to the Secretary of State. The form of communication with England is by despatch signed by all the Members of Council, except in mere formal communications, when the Secretariat method is adopted. The Governor in Council can create, modify, or abolish all appointments on a salary not exceeding Rs. 250 per mensem; appointments carrying higher pay require the sanction of the Secretary of State. The Governor in Council is empowered to undertake any works of public utility, other than railways, up to a limit of ten lakhs for any one work. The Governor himself possesses all the civil patronage of the Presidency which is not delegated to members of the subordinate administration. He can appoint to all offices other than the few which are recruited direct from England. The Governor takes official tours from time to time with a view to putting himself into immediate communication with the local administration.

2. The Secretariat.—The different Secretariat Departments of the Government are given in a list at foot.[1] Under the Chief Secretary is an Under Secretary, who is a Covenanted Civilian, and takes precedence of the other Under Secretaries; and an Assistant Secretary, for the Legislative Department, who is in other words an Under Secretary. The Chief Secretary has also three Uncovenanted

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[1] Secretariat Departments and Officers presiding.

Financial Department ..	Under the Chief Secretary to Government.
Judicial do. ..	
Public do. ..	
Educational do. ..	
Political do. ..	
Ecclesiastical do. ..	
Marine do. ..	
Legislative do. ..	
Revenue do. ..	Under the Revenue Secretary to Government.
Pension do. ..	
Public Works Department ..	Under the Public Works Secretary to Government, assisted by two Joint Secretaries in the Irrigation and Railway Branches.
Military Department ..	Under the Military Secretary to Government.

Assistants. Under the Revenue Secretary is an Under Secretary, with one Assistant and one Registrar. The Military Secretary is always a Military officer; he has two Uncovenanted Assistants. In the Public Works Department are two Under Secretaries, and two Uncovenanted Assistants. All correspondence regarding public business reaches Government through the Secretariat. The patronage of the Covenanted Civil Service is disposed of through the Chief Secretary in the Public Department.

3. Executive Departments and Officers.—The names of the different subjects into which the practical administration of the Government divides itself can best be seen from the major heads in the table of contents prefixed to the yearly Administration Report. Some of the subjects, as Jails, Educational, &c., form so-called executive departments; where this is so, it is necessary to remark that such departments are not in any way co-incident with the Secretariat Departments of the Government Office. The principal executive and other officers who are in direct communication with the Government, are shown in the list given below.[2] The italic headings show the Secretariat departments of the Government Office in which for the most part their communications are received. A head of a department may be defined as a Court, Board, or person, with certain assigned independent powers of administration and patronage. Heads of departments have absolute control over the establishments subordinate to them; subject to the rules of the service, to certain conditions of patronage, and to the general direction of Government. In most cases heads of departments appoint their subordinates; but there are exceptions, where the power is reserved to Government. A gazetted officer is an officer whose appointment rests with Government, and is notified in the Government Gazette.

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[2] Principal Officers in communication with Government in different Secretariat Departments.

Judicial.
- The Judges of the High Court.
- District and Sessions Judges.
- District Magistrates.
- Agents to the Governor of Fort St. George in Vizagapatam and Ganjám.
- Inspector-General of Police.
- Inspector-General of Jails.
- Presidency Magistrates.
- Judges of the Madras Court of Small Causes.
- Judge, Madras City Civil Court.
- Advocate-General.
- Government Solicitor.
- Government Pleader.
- Administrator-General.
- Inspector-General of Registration.
- Sheriff of Madras.

Public.
- Collectors of Districts.
- Surgeon-General with the Government of Madras.
- Sanitary Commissioner.
- Sanitary Engineer.
- Board of Examiners.
- Private Secretary to His Excellency the Governor.
- Government Astronomer.
- Chemical Examiner.
- Protector of Emigrants.
- Translators to Government.
- Examiner of Medical Accounts.
- Superintendent, Archæological Survey.
- Government Epigraphist.

Political.
- Resident in Travancore and Cochin.
- Paymaster, Carnatic Stipends.
- Government Agent at Tanjore.
- Political Agent at Pudukkóttai.
- Collector in charge of the Special Agent's Department at Cuddalore.
- Political Officer, Vellore.
- British Consular Agents at Pondicherry and Kárikál.

Ecclesiastical.
- The Right Reverend the Bishop of Madras.
- The Venerable the Archdeacon of Madras.
- Senior Chaplain of the Church of Scotland.
- Senior Marriage Registrar, Madras.

Marine.
- Presidency Port Officer.

Financial.
- Accountant-General.
- Commissioner of Paper Currency.
- Superintendent of Stamps and Stationery.
- Postmaster-General.

Educational.
- Director of Public Instruction.
- Commissioner for the Uncovenanted Civil Service Examinations.
- Registrar, Madras University.
- Superintendent of School of Arts.
- Committee for the management, Lawrence Asylum, Ootacamund.

Local and Municipal.
- Chairmen of Municipalities.
- Presidents of Local Fund Boards.

Revenue.
- Secretary to the Board of Revenue.
- Conservator of Forests.
- Director of Revenue Settlement.
- Superintendent of Revenue Survey.
- Commissioner of Salt Revenue.
- Superintendent of Government Farms.
- Superintendent, Government Central Museum.

Public Works.
- Chief Engineer, Public Works Department.
- Chief Engineer for Irrigation.
- Consulting Engineer for Railways.
- Examiner of Railway Accounts.
- Examiner of Public Works Accounts.

Military.
- Adjutant-General.
- Quartermaster-General.
- Judge Advocate-General.
- Inspector-General of Ordnance.
- Commissary-General.
- Controller of Military Accounts.
- Superintendent and Agent for Army Clothing.
- Superintendent of Family Payments and Pensions.
- Superintendent, Reserve Remount Depôt, Hósúr.
- Surgeon-General, H.M.'s Forces, Madras.
- Surgeon-General with the Government of Madras.

4. The Petition System.—The petition system, under which a person aggrieved with the action of any Government official appeals to the next higher authority by means of a petition and receives back a written reply, either refusing or promising redress, assumes an unusual importance in this Presidency owing to the number of small holdings of land under Ryotwári, and the consequent multiplication of details in administering the land revenue. In a recent year the Government in all departments other than the Military and Public Works received 2,443 petitions, called for reports, that is to say, took evidence in 150 cases, gave redress in 53 cases without calling for evidence, and gave redress in 49 cases after calling for evidence. In the same year the corresponding figures for petitions dealt with by Board of Revenue were 3,330, 230, 15, and 43 respectively. An aggrieved person may appeal in succession to the officers representing each grade in the department concerned, and may finally address in turn the Local Government, the Government of India, and the Secretary of State. The three last named have prescribed certain rules checking the indiscriminate presentation of petitions; in other cases there is no check beyond the discretion of the officer receiving them. In a few cases the quasi-judicial Regulations provide for appeals and impose limits on their presentation. Most of the petitions presented to Government officials relate to land revenue. The Government does not act as a channel of communication for memorials addressed to Parliament.

5. Law.—The principal statutes which relate to the office of the Governor in this Presidency, with the date and official title or usual designation, are the following. 11 Wm. III, c. 12 (A.D. 1698–99), Crimes committed in plantations. 33 Geo. III, c. 52 (A.D. 1792), an Act for continuing in the East India Company for a further term the possession of the British territories in India, together with their exclusive trade under certain limitations; for establishing further regulations for the government of the said territories and the better administration of justice within the same; for appropriating to certain uses the revenues and profits of the said Company; and for making provision for the good order and government of the towns of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay: sections 25 to 31 and 37 relate to the supply of vacancies in the office of Governor, &c.: sections 47 to 50 authorize the issue of orders by the Governor in certain cases without the consent of the Council: by section 137 the Governor is forbidden to trade. 37 Geo. III, c. 142, s. 10 (A.D. 1796–97), an Act for the better administration of justice at Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay, and for preventing British subjects from being concerned in loans to the Native princes in India: under section 10 the Courts of Judicature at Madras are not competent to try any indictment against the Governor or any of the Council except for treason or felony. 39 and 40 Geo. III, c. 79, s. 12 (A.D. 1799), Government of India; 53 Geo. III, c. 155, s. 89 (A.D. 1812–13), Government of India; 10 Geo. IV, c. 62, s. 1 (A.D. 1829), an Act to exclude persons accepting offices in the East Indies from being members of the House of Commons; 1 Wm. IV, c. 4, s. 2 (A.D. 1830–31), an Act to render valid acts done by the Governor of any of His Majesty's Plantations after the expiration of his commission by the demise of His late Majesty, and to extend the period within which the patents of Governors of Colonies shall, on any future demise of the Crown, become vacant, and to provide for the longer duration of the patents of Governors after the demise of the Crown. 3 and 4 Wm. IV, c. 85, ss. 61, 65, 76, 77, 79 (A.D. 1833), an Act for effecting an arrangement with the East India Company, and for the better government of His Majesty's Indian territories, till the 30th day of April 1854: under section 61, the provisional appointment of any person to the office of Governor must be approved of by the Crown: section 65 places the Governor under the control of the Governor-General: section 76 fixes the salary of the Governor: by section 77 the Governor has to forego pensions, &c., from the Crown while holding office: section 79 relates to the resignation of his office by the Governor. 21 and 22 Vic., c. 106 (A.D. 1858), an Act for the better government of India: under section 29 the Governor is appointed by the Queen. 24 and 25 Vic., c. 67 (A.D. 1861), the Indian Councils Act, an Act to make better provision for the constitution of the Council of the Governor-General of India, and for the Local Government of the several Presidencies and Provinces of India, and for the temporary government of India in the event of a vacancy in the office of Governor-General. 36 and 37 Vic., c. 88, ss.

2, 3 (A.D. 1873), Slave trade. 43 Vic., c. 3 (A.D. 1880), an Act to amend the law relating to the salaries and allowances of certain officers in India; and for other purposes relating thereto: under section 2 the Secretary of State has the power to regulate the allowances for the equipment and voyage of the Governor and Members of Council.

6. The law having reference to the Commander-in-Chief in his capacity as Member of Council is found in ss. 30, 32, and 33 of the Statute, 33 Geo. III, c. 52 (1792–93).

7. The powers and duties of the "Governor in Council" as distinguished from the Governor are laid down in the following enactments. 13 Geo. III, c. 63, s. 9 (A.D. 1772–73), an Act for establishing certain regulations for the better management of the affairs of the East India Company, as well in India as in Europe. 33 Geo. III, c. 52, ss. 41, 43, 44 (A.D. 1792)—see above. 3 and 4 Wm. IV, c. 85, s. 56 (A.D. 1833)—see above. 24 and 25 Vic., c. 67, s. 42 (A D. 1861)—see above. 32 and 33 Vic., c. 98, s. 2 (A.D 1869), an Act to define the powers of the Governor-General of India in Council at meetings for making laws and regulations for certain purposes. 34 and 35 Vic., c. 34 (A.D. 1871), an Act to extend in certain respects the power of local legislatures in India as regards European British subjects. India Act I of 1877, s. 45 (*f*)—the Specific Relief Act. A general definition of the term "Local Government" is given in s. 2 (10) of India Act I of 1868 (General Clauses' Act).

8. The law for Members of Council is as follows. 33 Geo. III, c. 52 (A.D. 1792–93)—see above: sections 25–31 relate to vacancies in the office of Member of Council: under section 34 the Governor can appoint a provisional Member of Council: section 37 refers to their resignation of their office: by section 137 Members of Council are prevented from trading. 37 Geo. III, c. 142, s. 10 (A.D. 1796–97)—see above. 39 and 40 Geo. III, c. 79 (A.D. 1799–1800), an Act for establishing further regulations for the government of the British territories in India, and the better administration of justice within the same: section 12 prescribes that the senior Member shall preside at the Council in the absence of the Governor. 53 Geo. III, c. 155, s. 89 (A.D. 1812–13), an Act for continuing in the East India Company for a further term the possession of the British territories in India, together with certain exclusive privileges; for establishing further regulations for the government of the said territories, and the better administration of justice within the same, and for regulating the trade to and from the places within the limits of the said Company's charter: section 82 declares that the office of Member of Council may be conferred on any Covenanted Civilian who has been actually resident in India for ten years: section 89 fixes the passage money, &c., of Members of Council. 3 and 4 Wm. IV, c. 85 (A.D. 1833)—see above: under section 57 the number of councillors may be reduced: by section 63 the senior Member of Council becomes Governor in the event of a vacancy in that office, there being no successor on the spot: section 64 relates to vacancies in the office of Member of Council: section 76 fixes the salary of a Member of Council: section 79, resignation of office by a Member of Council. 24 and 25 Vic., c. 67, ss. 26, 27, 34 (A.D. 1861)—see above. 32 and 33 Vic., c. 97 (A.D. 1869), an Act to amend in certain respects the Act for the better Government of India: by section 8 Members of Council are appointed by the Queen. 43 Vic., c. 3, s. 2 (A.D. 1880)—see above.

9. The Chief Secretary and other Secretaries to Government are referred to in the following enactments. 33 Geo. III, c. 52 (A.D. 1792–93)—see above: section 39 prescribes that all proceedings of the Governor in Council shall be signed by the Chief Secretary. 53 Geo. III, c. 155 (A.D. 1812–13)—see above: section 79 provides that proceedings of Government may be signed by the principal Secretary of the department in the absence of the Chief Secretary. 24 and 25 Vic., c. 54 (A.D. 1861), an Act to confirm certain appointments in India and to amend the law concerning the Civil Service there: by section 2 Secretaries and Under Secretaries to Government must be Covenanted Civil Servants. India Act II of 1834—Secretaries to Government to exercise powers of Chief Secretary.

CHAPTER IV.

CHARACTER OF LAND TENURES AND SYSTEM OF SURVEY AND SETTLEMENTS.

SURVEY.

1. INTRODUCTION.—Indian surveying is of three kinds, the trigonometrical to ascertain the general bearings of the country, the topographical for producing maps of which the typical size is one inch to the square mile, and the revenue which defines the boundaries of properties. The first is the most scientific, and the third is practically the most useful. Triangulation forms almost the sole operation in the first; in the third, it is of an elementary kind and is employed for the purpose of measuring lines that cannot be chained, and for the connection of revenue work with trigonometrical stations in order that the revenue survey distances may be checked by trigonometrical measurements. The Survey of India is an Imperial Department, with head-quarters at Calcutta. It includes a topographical and a revenue as well as a trigonometrical branch, and its operations extend to all parts of India for trigonometrical and topographical work, and to all parts of India other than the Bombay and Madras Presidencies for revenue work. The revenue survey of the Madras Presidency is the work of a separate department under the Local Government.

2. LAW.—The legal provisions specially connected with survey work in the Madras Presidency are those contained in Act XXVIII of 1860, "An Act for the "establishment and maintenance of boundary marks, and for facilitating the settle- "ment of boundary disputes in the Presidency of Fort St. George, and in Act II of "1884, an Act to make further provision for the maintenance of boundary marks." Act XXVIII of 1860 deals with the whole subject *ab initio* giving power to determine the boundaries both of villages and fields and to settle disputes. Government bears the cost of all survey station stones which are not boundary marks, and of all boundary marks in unoccupied Government lands. The owners or occupiers bear the cost of the boundary marks which define their properties. A penalty of Rs. 50 for each mark may be inflicted on conviction before a Magistrate for removal or erasure of or wilful damage to boundary marks; half of the penalty goes to the informer and half to the cost of restoration. If a mark disappears, and no delinquent can be found to whom the damage is attributable, the cost of restoration is divided between the occupants of the adjacent lands according to the order of the Magistrate investigating the case. Act II of 1884 provides for the better maintenance of boundaries after the completion of a survey, and for the recovery of the cost of restoration of demarcation stones from the ryots concerned. Under section 1 of this Act, the owner or occupier is made responsible for the maintenance of the boundary marks of his estate, and under the remaining sections the procedure is laid down under which the Collector is enabled to enforce the maintenance of the demarcation generally, and to recover, if necessary, the expenses incurred in the repair of boundary marks from the owners or occupiers of land in villages demarcated at the time of survey. An appeal is given under the concluding section of the Act to the Board of Revenue, against any decision of the Collector under the Act. The Act was generally modelled on the provisions of the Bombay Land Revenue Code.

3. ESTABLISHMENT.—The survey is under the control of a Superintendent, with an officer to assist him at head-quarters. There are now five parties at work in different parts of the presidency. Each party is under a Deputy Superintendent,

and has also when up to strength one or two Assistant Superintendents attached to it. The subordinate grades are Sub-Assistant, Head Surveyor, Deputy Surveyor and Field Surveyor for field work, and computer-draftsman and clerk for office. The village karnams are employed as field surveyors in their own villages. The average strength of a party is as follows :—1 Deputy Superintendent, 2 Assistant Superintendents, 3 Sub-Assistants, 4 Head Surveyors, 175 Deputy and Field Surveyors, 9 Clerks, 5 Computer-draftsmen, 123 servants. The numbers however frequently vary.

4. METHOD OF WORK.—The Madras Revenue Survey comprises 2 operations, Theodolite survey and Cadastral survey. The first is a survey with theodolite and chain based on the trigonometrical work of the Survey of India. The second is a survey with chain, cross staff and offset pole based on the theodolite work just mentioned. The object of the theodolite survey is to provide a sufficient number of accurately fixed points for the cadastral survey. These points are about half a mile apart and include all junctions of three or more village boundaries. With the exception of these village trijunctions, the fixed points are generally not boundary marks. All the points are permanently marked with large granite station stones. As a rule, every square mile of cultivated land contains about six of these fixed points. The accuracy of the theodolite survey is checked by comparing the length by revenue survey of sides of great trigonometrical survey triangles with the length as ascertained by the trigonometrical survey. The method of theodolite survey is either triangulation or traversing, whichever the nature of the country may render convenient. The points fixed by theodolite survey form the corners of main triangles, which are sub-divided by the cadastral surveyors into as many minor triangles as may be necessary. The sides of these main and minor triangles are chained and offsets are taken from them to all bends on village and field boundaries. At each bend a stone boundary mark is fixed. As a check on the offset measurements, the distance from stone to stone along every boundary is also measured. The fields, the boundaries of which are demarcated with stones as mentioned above, each contain one or more properties or pattá holdings of similar soil and tenure. In irrigated or valuable dry land, the survey field contains about 5 acres and in dry land of little value about 10 acres. The pattá holdings within the survey fields are called sub-divisions. They are measured and mapped in the same way as the survey fields, but their boundaries are not demarcated with stones. Full particulars regarding the tenure, occupancy, area, assessment, &c., of every survey field and sub-division are recorded in a Field Register or Record of Rights.

5. The points fixed by theodolite within and just outside the boundary of each village are plotted, *first*, on the scale of 16 inches to 1 mile to form the skeleton of the village map, and, *secondly*, on the scale of 40 inches to 1 mile on separate sheets, each containing a block of about a quarter square mile. There should be four fixed points on each sheet. The main and minor triangles and the offsets taken from their sides together with the village, field and sub-division boundaries are plotted on the 40-inch sheets day by day, as the chain survey progresses. All the boundary lines and all the measurements are entered in blue ink on the map, which thus forms a complete record of field measurement. The principal topographical details, buildings, water courses, railways, roads, &c., are also drawn in blue ink on the map. After the measurements and plotting have been carefully tested, and the map is passed as correct, the boundary lines and topographical details are re-inked in black, the chain lines, offsets and measurements being left in blue. The 40-inch block maps for each village together with the skeleton 16-inch map are then sent to the Photo-zincographic office where the 40-inch block maps are reduced by photography to the 16-inch scale. The boundary lines and topographical details drawn in black ink are reproduced in the photograph, but the chain lines, offsets and measurements which would overcrowd the 16-inch map disappear as they are recorded in blue ink. The carbon transfer prints of the block maps fit accurately into their places on the 16-inch map on which are typed with lithographic ink the heading, scale, names of adjoining villages, &c. The 16-inch village map thus formed is transferred to a zinc plate from which as many copies as are required are printed.

6. A geographical map of each taluk, scale 1 inch = 1 mile, and of each district, scale ½ inch = 1 mile, is prepared in the manner described below. Each taluk is divided into sections containing 3 minutes and 45 seconds of latitude and longitude. On the 16-inch scale, each such section occupies a separate sheet about 6 feet square. On these sheets are projected the lines of latitude and longitude, all the great trigonometrical survey stations and a sufficient number of revenue survey theodolite stations. The 16-inch lithographed village maps are cut out, joined together and pasted on the projected sheets, care being taken to fix the trigonometrical survey stations and other points mentioned above as accurately as possible. The 16-inch sheets are then reduced by photography to the scale 2 inches to the mile, and are printed in pale blue ink. The 2-inch blue prints are then carefully re-inked. Village boundaries and village sites, and all topographical details such as railways, roads, water courses, hills, &c., which should appear on the geographical maps are carefully drawn in black ink in what is technically called "an exaggerated style," the thickness of the lines and the size of type used for printing being exactly proportioned to the scale of reduction. The 2-inch sheets are then reduced by photography to the 1-inch scale. From the 1-inch negatives, carbon transfer prints are taken by exposure to the sun and fitted together on projected sheets showing lines of latitude and longitude and great trigonometrical stations on the scale of 1 inch to the mile. They are then transferred to zinc plates from which the number of copies required are printed. District maps are prepared in the same way by combining and reducing the taluk maps. The 1-inch taluk maps and ½-inch district maps are generally too large to be conveniently portable and maps of more convenient size are therefore prepared by photo-reducing the 1 inch and ½ inch maps to half scale, viz., ½ inch for taluk maps and ¼ inch for district maps. The ¼- inch district map thus obtained is reproduced in the form of quarter sheets of the Atlas of India, which are engraved on copper plates in the office of the Survey of India at Calcutta.

7. Progress to Date.—The presidency contains approximately 143,140 square miles and up to the end of the official year 1892-93, the progress shown in the statement at foot had been made.[1] In all 56,200 square miles of topographical and 69,819 square miles of revenue survey had been completed. The average error in the village maps shown by the test of comparing the work with that of the great trigonometrical survey is about 7 feet per mile.

REVENUE SETTLEMENT.

8. Introduction.—In the earliest times the land revenue was the sole Government impost, and the revenue system of the country may be said to have been founded on the absence of taxation properly so called. The land revenue was levied by all Hindu governments in the shape of a proportion of the gross produce fixed according to the capacity of different soils and the value of different products and was usually taken in kind. The amount of the Government share was very fluctuating, varying from the traditional one-sixth to two-fifths, a third or a half

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[1] Survey Work done up to 31st March 1893.

Original Survey.

	SQ. MS.
Villages and Estates surveyed on the 16-inch scale	69,819
Zamíndárí and hilly tracts surveyed on 4, 2 and 1 inch scales	56,200
Total ...	126,019

Remaining to be Surveyed.

	SQ. MS.
Revenue	3,689
Topographical	13,432
Total ...	17,121

Resurvey.

Revenue	Ordered ...	10,727
	Surveyed ...	3,267
	Balance ...	7,460

Maps published.

	NO.
Village	27,707
Taluk	173
District	15

of the gross produce. According to the Institutes of Manu, the State should take "an eighth part, a tenth, or a twelfth according to the difference of the soil and "the labour necessary to cultivate it," but there was no real limit on the share; and it should be remembered with reference to the supposed moderation of the "one-sixth," that it really represented little more than a charge for the royal "privy purse." No public works, no army and no police had to be maintained out of it. The army was supported by the estates on the feudal system, and so with the police as far as there was any distinct from the military force. And when the great tanks, bathing places and other works, which are now looked on with admiration as showing the wealth, power and wisdom of the old kings, were made, it was chiefly by unpaid labour.

9. The organization employed by the Hindu Rájás for the determination and collection of the Government share of the produce was evolved out of the village communal system, which gradually developed as the races of Southern India passed from a pastoral to an agricultural state. Geographically considered a village was a group of landholdings aggregated in one place with one or more than one group of dwellings situated somewhere in the area and with a tract of scrub jungle and grazing ground attached. Politically considered it resembled a corporation or township with its own proper establishment of officers and servants. In each village there was an accountant, who was required to keep an exact register of the quantity of land held by each cultivator, the part of it cultivated, his means of cultivation, the actual produce, the proportion he was entitled to receive from the crop, the share actually received from him as the Government due, as well as an account of every other circumstance or transaction in his village that concerned the tenures under which the lands were held. To another officer, the headman of the village, was assigned the duty of receiving the Government share due from each cultivator. Villages were grouped into divisions (parganás, taluks) and districts (zillas, circars), over each of which officers with similar functions were appointed to receive and account for the revenues.

10. Such was the prevailing aspect of the revenue administration in the Hindu kingdoms in Southern India. But historical and local conditions gave rise to variations in the systems of collecting the land revenue. On the West Coast, owing to the configuration of the country, the cultivators did not congregate into village groups, but resided in scattered habitations on their farms and in their gardens. A land tax prevailed in the northern part of the country, now known as North and South Canara, but it was very light, and the bulk of the revenue appears to have been derived from the royal demesnes and certain extraneous sources, such as import and export duties; circumstances were thus favorable to the growth of a landlord class, and in later times when the country was subjected to the sway of the great Hindu empire of Vijayanagar, the subdivision of the produce is found to have been between the cultivator ($\frac{1}{2}$), the landlord ($\frac{1}{4}$) and the State ($\frac{1}{4}$).

11. South of the Canarese country lies Malabar, and here the idea of personal property in land was still more strongly developed. This was in great measure attributed to the abdication of the overlord of the country in the ninth century. The petty chiefs, who thus became independent, derived a sufficient revenue from their own private estates. Their police and military forces were maintained on a system similar to the feudal system of Europe and it is doubtful whether any general land tax was levied till the conquest of the country by Haidar Alí of Mysore in 1766.

12. In parts of the Tamil country, *i.e.*, the country inhabited by the Tamil speaking peoples lying between what is now the Nellore district on the north and the most southern extremity of the east coast, skirting the Mysore plateau on the eastern side, new villages were founded by colonization, in which the original settlers and their descendants formed an exclusive oligarchy. The village government was carried on by a council of five, in which the village headman was only president. The Government in these villages had no concern with the distribution of the lands and settled the amount of the land revenue not with the individual cultivators singly but with the village authorities. Traces of this system survive to the present day in the so-called mirási tenure in the districts of Chingleput,

North and South Arcot and Tanjore. The third natural division into which Southern India is divided is the Telugu country. The hilly portions of this tract seem to have been from time immemorial parcelled out among chieftains of the military class, who exercised uncontrolled territorial jurisdiction within their limits and appropriated the entire revenue, subject to the condition of performing military service to the overlord. Alienations of the state demand were prevalent throughout Southern India, the revenues of a village or group of villages being assigned in whole or in part as remuneration for various services. In such cases the paramount power would deal only with the grantee for its stipulated share of the revenue.

13. The Government dues were usually taken in kind. In those times when the boundaries of fields were ill-defined and the holdings very small and intermixed, it was easier and gave less opportunity for abuse to divide the grain after it had been threshed out than to calculate money payments according to the quantity and quality of land actually cultivated. The Government grain was stored in granaries in different villages until the state of prices made it profitable to the Government to dispose of it. The first beginnings of the change from a mere levy of a share of the grain to a regularly assessed land revenue may fairly be traced to the Emperor Akbar's settlement, which began in Northern India in 1571. There had been some earlier attempts, but they were not systematic and the records have not been handed down.

14. The general principles of Akbar's settlement were the measurement of the land by an imperial standard, the division of soils into three classes, and the calculation of the average value of the produce upon an average of the prices of nineteen years. This period was selected, because nineteen years being a cycle of the moon, the seasons were supposed to have undergone a complete change. The Government share of the produce was fixed at one-third. At first settlements were made every year, but subsequently every ten years. At a later date another great settlement was carried out by the Muhammadan kings of the Deccan, but that was almost wholly a copy of Akbar's settlement.

15. The measures thus inaugurated may have been introduced by the Muhammadans into those parts of Southern India which came under their rule. But their occupation was strictly a military one; little change seems to have occurred in the land revenue system; and the police and revenue administration still remained for the most part in the hands of the native chiefs. Where, however, such chiefs were not available, farmers of the land revenue were appointed. The Hindu kingdom of Vijayanagar had gradually absorbed the three ancient kingdoms of Chola, Chera and Pándya, but upon its disruption in 1564 by the Muhammadans a state of anarchy prevailed such as to preclude the possibility of introducing a well-organized system of land revenue. The minor chiefs seized the opportunity for throwing off their dependence, and the country was desolated by their quarrels and wars and struggles for supremacy which lasted for more than two centuries.

16. The village organizations, however, survived more or less intact throughout these tumultuous times, for they were respected by chieftains and farmers of revenue alike as being the means of enabling them to draw their rents. The dues were no doubt levied in arbitrary fashion: each village was assessed at a lump sum, which probably varied at the caprice or need of the chief, and the cultivators either assessed themselves or were assessed by the headmen in shares of this lump sum. Thus when the administration of Southern India fell into the hands of the British, the problem of how to manage the land revenue presented many complexities.

17. Early Settlements under the British Government.—The first general acquisition of territory by the East India Company—the first from a revenue point of view—was the country round Madras, which now forms the Chingleput district. The revenue of this tract was assigned by the Nawáb of the Carnatic as a contribution towards the expense of the wars undertaken in his behalf. At first the direct administration was not assumed; the revenues were collected on the native plan; in 1780, however, the country was leased out by the Company in large farms on nine-year leases. The renters failed and the estates were sequestered in 1788. The district was then placed in charge of one or two Collectors, as the chief revenue

officers were called, the term being borrowed from Bengal. The most famous of these, Mr. Lionel Place, determined to restore the ancient village organization as the basis of revenue management and settled the amount of the Government revenue with the village councils, leaving it to the villagers to assess themselves individually. This system might have succeeded, but was summarily terminated in 1802. Under the orders of the Court of Directors the district was then divided into estates, each estate being assessed at a fixed sum varying according to its size and resources, and these estates were sold by auction to the highest bidder.

18. The next acquisitions of the Company in point of time were the Northern Circars (administrative divisions) five in number, which form the present districts of Ganjám, Vizagapatam, Gódávari and Kistna in the north-east of the presidency. They were obtained by grant from the Delhi Emperor in 1765 and came at once under British administration. It was found that they consisted of large farms held by large renters called zamíndárs (as in Bengal) or in a few cases by native chiefs dating from the pre-Muhammadan period, and of crown lands (Havéli lands) reserved for the support of the governors of the province or members of the royal family and their immediate dependants. The zamíndárs were left in possession and the crown lands were parcelled out and leased to revenue farmers for a term of years. In 1769 provincial councils were formed after the model of Bengal to supervise the revenue management. They found the work of looking after the zamíndárís too great for them and did not effect much. The next step was the appointment by the Court of Directors of a Special Commission or Committee of Circuit to make tours in the districts and institute inquiries into rights and interests. Their instructions were conceived in a liberal and enlightened spirit, but the local councils did not support the members and the renters did all in their power to thwart them. The commission therefore resulted in failure. In 1786 a Board of Revenue was established at Madras on the pattern of the Board already existing in Bengal, and about the same time individual collectors took the place of provincial councils in the circars.

19. In the same year that the Madras Government entered on the management of the Northern Circars, the Bengal Government assumed that of Bengal, Behar and Orissa; and experiments were conducted in the latter case in very much the same way as in the former. The Bengal Government, however, came earlier to a decision and when Lord Cornwallis arrived in India in 1786 the plan of the permanent settlement with the Bengal zamíndárs had already been arranged. A tentative settlement of the whole of Bengal for a ten-year period was announced in 1789, and in 1792 the experiment of a permanent settlement was declared to be confirmed.

20. Pressure was brought to bear on Madras by the Bengal Government to adopt the same policy and the Court of Directors sent out orders to this effect in 1795. The Madras Board, however, replied that it was hardly prepared to recommend the perpetuation of the settlement and required time for the collection of further information. In 1799 positive orders were issued from England that Lord Cornwallis' permanent system was to be adopted throughout the Madras Presidency.

21. Eventually the Madras Government reported to the Supreme Government that it was possessed of materials for a permanent zamíndárí settlement in certain parts of the country. A special commission was appointed, and between the years 1802 and 1804 the northern districts of Madras were permanently assessed. The lands already in the hands of zamíndárs were confirmed to them in perpetuity, the assessment (peshkash) being fixed at two-thirds of half the gross produce estimated on an average of the previous thirteen years. That is to say, half the produce was to be left to the cultivator, one-sixth was to be the zamíndár's share, and the remaining two-sixths was the Government revenue. While, however, the amount of the latter once fixed was unalterable, no increase ever being leviable on account of extension of cultivation to waste lands, the disposal of which was left entirely in the hands of the zamíndárs, the zamíndárs were able gradually to appropriate as 'rent' a larger proportion of the produce of each field and to arrogate to themselves the privileges of landlords, whereas at first they had been little more than collectors of revenue for Government. The crown lands were parcelled out into estates of

a convenient size, assessed in a similar manner and sold as permanently settled revenue farms to the highest auction bidder. Regulation XXV of 1802 constituted both these descriptions of landholders, proprietors and detailed the terms on which they held their property. In course of time, however, many of these artificially created estates came back on the hands of Government owing to failure of the purchasers, and the lands then, owing to absence of new purchasers, became subject to the ordinary (temporary) settlement. This was not the case in Bengal. Though great numbers of zamíndárís were sold for arrears, a purchaser was generally found for them and they did not cease to be permanently settled estates. Only in a comparatively few cases was there no purchaser, and then the lands were retained by Government as 'Khás Mahals,' *i.e.*, estates retained in the hands of Government.

22. While these measures for the settlement of the more ancient territories of the Company were in progress, new territories were being added to the Presidency, and the question of land assessment came up again for discussion in connection with the part of the country ceded to the English in the south. In 1792 the first war with Típú Sultán of Mysore placed a considerable tract of country comprising the present district of Salem, part of Madura, and Malabar in the hands of the British. The second war with Tipú added Canara and Coimbatore. According to a treaty with the Nizám of Haidarábád in 1800 what are now called the Ceded districts, viz., Bellary, Anantapur, Kurnool and Cuddapah were ceded in perpetuity. In 1801 all the remaining possessions of the Nawáb of Arcot in the Carnatic comprising the present districts of Nellore, North and South Arcot, Madura, Trichinopoly and Tinnevelly were made over to the British, thus carrying their possessions down to Cape Comorin. The state of Tanjore had been brought under management in 1799 owing to the incapacity of its Hindu ruler.

23. In the lands thus newly acquired, the same distinction was found as in the Northern Circars. That is to say, there were lands held by numerous chieftains (pálegárs) and lands held direct from Government.

24. When these new districts had to be settled, officers of the Civil Service were not available, and the failure of management in the earlier acquired tracts furnished additional reason for the appointment of military officers, who knew the language and the country. Accordingly, Captain Read was sent to the Bárámahál as the Salem district was then called, he had Munro and others as his assistants. Coimbatore was taken in hand in 1799 by two officers, who had been under Read. The Ceded districts were undertaken by Munro in 1801. The Carnatic districts immediately followed and were settled on similar general principles.

25. Practically all these early settlements were tentative arrangements which depended largely on what the settlement officers found practicable. The general idea was to make a permanent settlement, but with whom was not determined. Captain Read's instructions were to grant leases to the headmen or the chief inhabitants of each village, that is to say one or more individuals were to be selected to hold the settlement and to pay, according to the terms of the lease, the amount that might be agreed upon as the revenue of the village. The leases were to be annual at first, but after sufficient information had been gathered, it was hoped that five-year leases might be entered into. To begin with, Read offered terms to the headmen of single villages or groups of villages based on the recorded assessment of Haidar's reign corrected by comparison with accounts of actual cultivation. At the same time the interest of the cultivator was looked to and a field-to-field survey was made. This led to the idea of assessing each field according to its quality and leaving the cultivator free (which was in the end a very good test of the assessment) to keep the field or relinquish it and take another. The survey was finished and the assessment on each field determined by the year 1798, and a proclamation was made setting forth the terms of the settlement, one of the conditions being that all the resident cultivators of a village should be jointly responsible for the revenue due on all the lands cultivated during the year. This was not the kind of 'village lease' which the Board had intended, and an explanation was called for. Meanwhile Read was called away to the second Mysore war and the consideration of what had been done was suspended by the attempt to carry out the orders to introduce the

permanent settlement. In accordance with the orders received in 1799 the Bárámahál was divided in the years 1803–1805 into numerous revenue farms which were sold by auction to the highest bidder. A great many of the farmers, however, failed in the second year after having pillaged the villages placed under them, and the estates came back in numbers on the Government. It became evident that the permanent settlement could not be carried out, and a return was made to Read's system, which was, in fact, a ryotwárí settlement, *i.e.*, a settlement with each individual cultivator (ryot).

26. The estates held by a few of the pálegárs in the Ceded districts and in the Carnatic districts were permanently settled, but in the majority of instances the pálegárs attempted to resist the British authorities in the hope of continuing the same lawless course of exactions and plunder that they had adopted before the annexation and were therefore destroyed or dispossessed.

27. The attempt to create artificial estates which were to be assigned in perpetuity subject to the payment of a fixed sum as peshkash or land revenue was a general failure, and at last it became apparent that the conditions of by far the greater part of the presidency were unsuited to the introduction of the zamíndárí system. In 1808 the Government of Fort St. George determined to recur to the system of 'village leases' in the districts in which the permanent settlement had not been established, and in which settlements were being made with the individual cultivators and the revenue collected from them by Government servants on the principles worked out by Read, Munro and the men who had served under them. The chief objects of the change of system appear to have been economy and a desire to introduce a plan of settlement approximating to the zamíndárí settlement in perpetuity.

28. Under the village lease system the settlement was to be made with the village headman or the general body of villagers, or failing them with a renter. The revenue due to Government was to be assessed on the average of the amount collected from the village in previous years. The leases were to be for triennial periods; they were afterwards made decennial.

29. The great difference between this system and the ryotwárí system was that under the latter the cultivators were at liberty to extend or curtail their holdings and were only responsible for the payment of the revenue assessed on the fields actually cultivated; under the former the fixed amount had to be paid annually whether the lands were cultivated or not. It was not a successful experiment on the whole. The most general cause of failure was over-assessment. Lessees could not be found for many villages, and in these the ryotwárí system was continued.

30. One great advantage of the ryotwárí system was the opportunity it afforded of acquiring information respecting revenue matters, of ascertaining the dues of Government and the rights of the cultivators. The universal introduction of the zamíndárí system had been held in abeyance for fear of sacrificing the interests of Government in the then imperfect state of knowledge, and the ryotwárí system was discontinued in favour of the village lease system before all the benefits it was capable of yielding had been realized. However, in 1817 the Court of Directors issued instructions for the abolition of the village leases and the re-introduction of the ryotwárí system wherever practicable. At this period the zamíndárí system was in force in the districts of Ganjám, Vizagapatam, Gódávari, Kistna, Salem and Chingleput, in the permanently settled estates of the pálegárs in parts of the Ceded districts, Nellore, North and South Arcot, Madura and Tinnevelly. In the unsettled portions of the latter districts and in Tanjore and Trichinopoly the village lease system prevailed. In Coimbatore, Malabar and Canara the ryotwárí system had been established.

31. It has already been noticed that in Malabar and Canara a class of landlords was found with strong proprietary rights and their claims were so far recognized that they were allowed to retain a share in the produce. No survey was undertaken. The prevailing custom of measuring the land for purposes of assessment by the amount of seed it takes to sow it being recognized and adopted.

32. In 1820 Munro became Governor of the Madras Presidency and took his seat in time to preside over the final establishment of the ryotwárí system.

33. The early ryotwárí settlements had many defects. Restrictions were placed upon the relinquishment of land, and heavy assessments were imposed on garden land, *i.e.*, lands cultivated with special crops. The survey and settlement were conducted so rapidly that there were very great inequalities. The assessments were largely dependent not so much on the estimates of produce as on former assessments which had been run up to a high pitch under the Mysore Government or the Nawáb as the case might be. Such rates were liable to become unbearable when grain became very low in selling price as it did for a number of years. Hence various devices were resorted to to mitigate the burden.

34. All this has now given way to careful survey and deliberately framed and carefully equalized assessments. The extra taxation of garden lands has been abolished.

35. Ryotwárí Settlement.—Before proceeding to describe the machinery by which the existing settlements have been effected, the modern meaning attached to the term ryotwárí settlement may be explained. It means the division of all arable land whether cultivated or not into ' fields ' and the assessment of each ' field ' at a fixed rate for a term of years. The ' field ' is an arbitrary area. There is no minimum size, but it is usual to fix a maximum. A survey field as it is called thus often comprises the holdings of two or more occupants. The boundaries of the survey field are usually defined by stones, the interstitial holdings being merely distinguished by field ridges, as hedge-rows are, generally speaking, only used for fencing in gardens and orchards. The occupant pays the revenue so assessed on the area he actually occupies. This area may be constant or may be varied from year to year by the relinquishment of old fields and the taking up of new, which are either available as waste or in consequence of having been given up by some one else. The occupant deals directly with the Government and is responsible for no one's revenue but his own. He is given a document called a pattá, which sets forth the extent and assessment of each survey field or portion of a field in his occupation. This pattá is liable to revision every year so as to bring it into accord with the actual state of affairs. The occupant thus enjoys all the advantages of absolute proprietorship, subject only to the payment of the revenue due on the lands held during the year. The lands can be inherited, sold or burdened for debt in precisely the same manner as a proprietary right, provided that the person in whose name the land is registered in the Government accounts pays the revenue due to the State. The total number of holdings under this system in the year 1891–92 was 2,921,911 with an average of 7·24 acres each holding.

36. Institution of the Settlement Department.—In 1855, that is, a quarter of a century after the final adoption of ryotwárí as the standard revenue system of Madras, less than a fifth of the area of the presidency was cultivated, while more than half of the area recorded as arable was waste. Though population had largely increased and there had been uninterrupted peace, there had, in all these years, been no material increase of revenue nor extension of cultivation. The incidence of assessment was everywhere very unequal, while a succession of years of low prices had had the practical effect of raising rates which, it was admitted, were already too high. It was calculated that on the average, Government at that time took as its share, 50 per cent. of the gross produce of irrigated land and 35 per cent. of that of unirrigated land, while, to give the ryot any real proprietary interest in the land and to induce an extension of cultivation, from 25 to 30 per cent. of the gross produce was, it was thought, the utmost the Government should claim. The presidency of Madras was also the only province of India in which no regular survey had been instituted. The early surveys, even the best of them, were defective. There were no maps—district, taluk or village—and no permanent boundaries, and the records of the surveys, such as they were, had been but imperfectly preserved. These early surveys, moreover, extended to only a few districts of the presidency, and there were districts in which the only records of the area liable to assessment were the unchecked entries in the accounts prepared by the village officers. On these and similar considerations, the Government

determined in 1855 that a general revision should be made of the assessments of the presidency, founded on what seemed the only right basis of a land revenue settlement, an accurate survey and a more or less exact classification of soils. The Government of India and the Home Government concurred in the necessity of the measure, and the Revenue Settlement Department was constituted in 1858 with Mr. Newill for the first Director. The Settlement Department at first undertook to demarcate the village and field boundaries. This was a tedious process involving much arbitration and the investigation of many disputes. The marks erected in many cases were temporary and destructible, and had frequently to be renewed by others of a more permanent nature. This unsatisfactory work continued to occupy much time and attention until the Gódávari, Kistna, Kurnool, Nellore, Salem, Trichinopoly and Tinnevelly districts were demarcated and surveyed, when the demarcation of boundaries was made over to the Survey Department. This was in 1864. By the end of 1864 proposals for the revision of the settlement of the whole of Trichinopoly, of that portion of Kurnool known as Kurnool proper, of the Masulipatam portion of the Kistna district, of one taluk of South Arcot, and of the western delta of the Gódávari district had been worked out and submitted for the consideration of Government. The results of these operations of the department so far were not in the opinion of Government, satisfactory. Its organization as a separate department, distinct from the local revenue establishments, was held to be defective, and the experience and knowledge of the district officers were lost, their interest not being enlisted. The personal supervision which the Director could exercise over the operations of scattered parties could be only nominal. The time available for ascertaining by experiment the productive powers of the soil was necessarily very limited, and the conclusions arrived at by the department had not, in this respect, commanded confidence. Much time and money were wasted over minute details of little practical value, while the really important work of a settlement was left too much to ill-paid subordinates. Except, therefore, in certain districts, where work was already so far advanced as to make its continuance by the special department desirable, Government resolved to place all settlement operations under the immediate supervision of district officers controlled by the Board of Revenue. The new system was introduced in two districts—Tinnevelly and Nellore—the Collector of the former being, from long experience as a settlement officer, especially qualified for the duty. But in Nellore the experiment resulted in such a failure, that Government, in 1868, transferred the settlement back to the special department on the ground that the retention of the special department was the only method by which to ensure celerity and efficiency in settlement work, consistency and uniformity in the details of re-assessment and a fair measure of relative equality in the resulting taxation, as well as to save the country from the neglect which must occur if the Collector and subordinate revenue officers were withdrawn from their ordinary duties. Settlement operations continued everywhere, except in Tinnevelly, under the control of the special department till the end of 1873, when, on the transfer of the then Director to the Board of Revenue, that appointment was placed in abeyance for some months. On the appointment of a temporary incumbent in 1874, the question was again considered of abolishing the department as a separate institution. The settlement of the whole of the Trichinopoly, Kistna, Gódávari, Nellore and Salem districts, and of parts of South Arcot, Kurnool, Cuddapah and Tinnevelly had been by that time completed. The area settled by the department in these 15 years was 27,892 square miles, and the cost incurred, including demarcation, amounted to Rs. 42,84,775. The cost of settlement proper was Rs. 24,06,733 or Rs. 83 per square mile. There remained 26,146 square miles to be settled, and the time estimated to accomplish this was 13 or 14 years. The decision given was in favor of the continuance of the department under a separate head. The department continued to be so administered till the latter part of 1879, when, in consequence of the financial exigencies of the Empire, the appointment of Director was abolished, and the strength of the department reduced by about half. The department was, under these altered conditions, administered by a member of the Board of Revenue. This arrangement lasted till the end of 1882, when the appointment of Director was revived and conjoined with that of the newly constituted Directorate of Agriculture. But at the re-organization of the

Board of Revenue in April 1887, the department was again placed under the direct charge of the Board, one of its members assuming the portfolio under the designation of the Commissioner of Revenue Settlement and Director of the Department of Land Records and Agriculture.

37. The scheme of survey and settlement as originally sketched out is shown under the following 14 heads: (1) A Revenue Survey showing all the principal variations in the surface of the soil as hills, jungles, roads, channels, tanks, topes, houses, cultivated and cultivable lands, and also exhibiting accurately the sizes of the fields in these last two classes of land. (2) The minimum size of fields was to be one acre of wet and two acres of dry land. Interstitial holdings were to be treated as sub-divisions of such fields. (3) Permanent boundary marks were to be established, and field, village and taluk maps prepared. (4) Assessment was to be ryotwár. (5) The terms of the annual settlement made with each ryot were to vary simply with the area or quality of the lands held by the ryot, and his use or non-use of water from a Government source. (6) Soils were to be divided into a few classes based on real tangible differences of composition. (7) The settlement officer was to estimate, as nearly as possible, the productive power of the land, stated in quantities of some one of the ordinary grain crops: paddy for irrigated lands, and cumbu, cholam or some other grain for unirrigated. These estimates (grain outturns) were to form the basis of the ultimate assessment. They were to be made on a carefully moderate scale so as to allow for indifferent crops and bad seasons. (8) The land was then to be valued with regard to nearness of village roads, markets, irrigation facilities, &c., and the field or village was to be classed accordingly. (9) The assessment was to be moderate. Existing rates were generally based on 50 per cent. of gross produce for wet and 33 per cent. for dry lands. Sir Thomas Munro's maximum was 30 per cent., and this was now adopted on the assumption that the average would run at about 25 per cent. of the gross produce. (10) The ryots' payment was to vary with the rateable money value (or commutation price) of the standard crop fixed every 7 or 10 years on the average of the same period. (11) It was believed that it would not be found necessary to divide the country for the purpose of official scales of prices, *i.e.*, one scale was to apply to the entire presidency for the term adopted. But this principle was abandoned in practice, and commutation prices of every district have been calculated independently. (12) The grain outturns were to be unalterable for a period of 50 years. (13) It was to be open to the ryot to compound for a fixed annual payment for a term of years. (14) The Survey Department and the Settlement Department were to be separate, the former under a Surveyor-General, the latter under a Superintendent of Settlement. The total cost was estimated at 76½ lakhs, spread over a period of 15 or 20 years. But this estimate has been greatly exceeded. Up to 31st March 1893, the total expenditure on Revenue Survey has been Rs. 207,96,052, and on Settlement Rs. 103,07,336. The result was expected to be an immediate loss of revenue consequent on the reduction of the Government share of the gross produce. But this was to be more than recouped by extension of cultivation. This scheme was accepted in the main by the Court of Directors. Objections taken subsequently with regard to certain detailed points were decided at different times as enumerated below: (1) The restriction as to the size of fields has been removed. The maximum was once fixed at 2 acres for wet and 4 for dry land, but now, as a rule, each revenue field (*i.e.*, each parcel of land on which previously a separate assessment was fixed) will form a survey field. In exceptional cases two or more revenue fields may be clubbed together subject to the following conditions: (*a*) Every survey field so formed must consist of entire revenue fields. (*b*) No survey field so united must exceed 6 acres of wet or 12 acres of dry land. (*c*) The revenue fields forming a survey field should be held on the same tenure. Inám and Government land should not be taken together. (*d*) No existing revenue field need be divided, however large. Sub-division of survey fields is allowed without limit of extent, except when it is for the purpose of relinquishment when the portion divided off for relinquishment, should not be less than 2 acres, if dry, and 1 acre, if wet, unless the portion relinquished has been destroyed or rendered useless by causes beyond the ryots' control. (2) The assessment was to be made on the net produce, *i.e.*, after deducting the expenses of cultivation and a percentage for vicissitudes of season, unprofitable areas, &c. In 1864, the Govern-

ment share of the net produce was fixed by the Secretary of State at one-half. The question had been raised in the Trichinopoly assessment scheme. (3) The term of settlement was to be 30 years, *i.e.*, both grain outturns and commutation prices were to remain unalterable for that period. (4) Leases for a term of years at reduced rents were found to be unnecessary for the encouragement of large holdings. (5) Another important question which came up for disposal at the time of the settlement of the Gódávari and Kistna districts was the method to be adopted in assessing the additional amount to be paid, over and above the land assessment, for water supplied from Government irrigation sources, such as the Gódávari and Kistna canals. In these two districts it was decided to impose an uniform charge of Rs. 4 per acre for irrigation supplied for a single crop, in addition to the land assessment which was determined as if the land was unirrigated. It was desired to adopt a similar plan in all other districts where it was found practicable. As a matter of fact, however, the only other district in which the system has been introduced is Kurnool, in some parts of which irrigation is supplied from a canal which was originally worked by the Madras Irrigation Canal (Kurnool) Company under a guarantee from Government, and the principle was maintained when the Company's works were taken over by Government. The land assessments were fixed without reference to the facilities for irrigation. In districts subsequently settled, the assessment on irrigated lands was determined by a consideration of the value of the paddy (rice) crop grown on the best irrigated land, gradations of rates being formed to meet the conditions of inferior qualities of soil or defects in the sufficiency or regularity of the water supply. (6) Formerly, it was the practice to charge the rates settled for irrigated lands, on lands irrigated by wells, where such wells were situated within a distance of ten yards of a Government source of irrigation, although Government had incurred no expense in sinking the wells. The justification offered for this infringement of the rule, that improvements effected at the sole cost of the cultivator, should not be subject to taxation, was that the wells derived their water-supply by percolation from the Government source. Under recent orders, however, such lands are no longer assessed as irrigated, and the cultivator is allowed to enjoy the benefit of irrigation from his well free of any additional charge.

38. Constitution of the Department.—The department consists at present of five Settlement Parties, the usual strength of each Party being a Deputy Commissioner, an Uncovenanted Assistant, an office establishment costing Rs. 575[²] a month, and one supervisor with a field establishment costing Rs. 1,245[³] a month. Deputies are classed in two grades, a first-class Deputy getting Rs. 1,100 a month and second-class Deputy Rs. 750. In one party there is an Assistant Commissioner on Rs. 550 a month. Extra establishments are entertained on occasion of pressure to aid the regular establishments.

39. Procedure of Settlement.—The detailed operations performed by the Settlement Department in making the settlement of a district are the following:

40. *I. Inspection.*—In the first instance it is necessary to obtain a general view of the characteristics of the district. Particulars of the climate, rainfall and physical features of such tracts or divisions as differ from each other distinctly have to be ascertained; information relative to its past history, its years of plenty or famine, its land tenures, mode of taxation, and the causes of gradual progress has to be searched for in the Collector's records; the relative values of such sources of irrigation as the various tracts possess have to be estimated; a general idea of the prevailing soils must be acquired; at the same time information is gathered as to how different tracts are affected by roads, canals, markets, towns, hill ranges or seaboard: the methods of cultivation pursued, the crops grown, the mode of disposal of surplus grain, the markets mostly frequented and the wages paid to labourers have to be inquired into. A district is, for administrative purposes, divided into taluks: each taluk has to be visited and the revenue officers and leading cultivators consulted.

[²] This is the cost of four parties out of five: the fifth costs Rs. 606.

[³] This is the cost of three parties: the fourth costs Rs. 1,251 and the fifth Rs. 1,359.

41. *II. Classification of Soils.*—Soils were divided by Mr. Newill into 5 great series. (1) The alluvial and exceptional, which provided for the rich soils in the deltas of the great rivers, for garden and other soils, permanently improved by long working. (2) The regar or regada, the so-called 'black-cotton' soil. (3) The red ferruginous soil originating from sandstone, laterite, &c. (4) The calcareous soil, originating from underlying strata of chalk or lime (of rare occurrence). (5) The arenaceous soil (more or less pure sand on the sea coast, &c.). These series were adopted because they answer the requirements of being few, simple and well defined, while they are universally acknowledged by the people themselves.

42. Every soil of the series may contain varieties in physical constitution. Each one has some one distinctive mineral constituent which is capable of reduction to an impalpable powder. This contains the characteristic mineral nutritive element of the soil, and is for convenience (though not, of course, with scientific accuracy) spoken of as 'clay.' Now, each series may exhibit this material or 'clay' either pure or mixed with sand (as loam) or mixed with an excess of sand (sandy soil). And the difference affects the value of the soil because it makes it heavier or lighter, more or less permeable, liable to cake, or able to retain moisture. Each series is thus divided into classes, the exceptional into two ((1) alluvial, (2) permanently improved), the others into three each. The three soil classes are known as 'clay,' 'loam,' and 'sand.' Clay soils of each series are those containing more than two-thirds of clay, loamy soils those with one-third to two-thirds clay and the rest sand, and sandy soils those with more than two-thirds sand. So far the classification of soils proceeds, under fixed rules, according to their mechanical composition. Allowance is made for the presence of valuable or deleterious ingredients which affect the fertility of the soil by the sub-division of each class into 'sorts' according as the soil is 'good,' 'bad,' 'ordinary,' &c., of its kind. At first the number of sorts in a class was only two, but experience proved such a scale to be too inelastic and the number was increased first to three and then to five, viz., best, good, ordinary, inferior, worst. In determining the classification, the soil is turned up to the depth of about 9 inches. One yard is considered to be the proper depth for the surface soil; if it is less than this, the actual depth is noted as well as the nature of the sub-soil. Classification is made by classifiers under Head Classifiers and Supervisors. The classification of each field is noted on the village map and in a register. It is usually found that soils run in considerable blocks round which a line can be run on the map. Inside the block small differences in a few scattered fields would be disregarded to avoid multiplying blocks.

43. A revenue system based on field assessment seems to demand naturally and necessarily the separate classification of each individual field, and this is the sanctioned method of the department; it is, at the same time, laid down that though the details of classification extend to each field, the wider comparative view of the operations should never be lost sight of, as it is most desirable that the land should be viewed in a comprehensive way by the classifier. The detailed method of classification excited opposition at a very early period of the history of the department. Objection was taken to leaving the classification to lowly paid men and it was proposed that the system of detailed field classification should be replaced by a system of classification in blocks laid out by native officers, but valued by Europeans. It was pointed out in reply that the result would, in both cases, be practically the same, and the proposal was negatived as impracticable. The question was again revived in 1875, in connection with the settlement of certain villages of the Chingleput district. The method advocated there by the Director was that the officer conducting the settlement should lay out the land in blocks so similarly circumstanced in regard to soil, former assessment, cultivation, distance from village, tank, &c., that they might be safely charged at the same average rate. Under this system, the classifier, instead of preceding the head of the party, was to follow him merely filling in details of registry for the lands inspected and laid out by the settling officer in consultation with the ryots. For this system, it was claimed that fraud was almost impossible, while the officer conducting the settlement had, from first to last, a perfect knowledge of every detail of the country with which he was dealing, and could afford to dispense with the voluminous returns invented as checks on ill-paid subordinates. As a method of work, the Government has

disapproved of the plan, but encourages blocking as a sequel to field classification, and as in fact an office arrangement made for the purpose of check and revision. To the extent to which the revising officer applies the block system, results are, of course, rough, in lieu of detailed. Under this system it is evident that the average run of soils must determine the classification of a block, and that isolated fields and small tracts of better or worse quality than the average of the block must gain or lose by inclusion within it.

44. *III. Assessment.*—The next stage is to ascertain what amount of crop each different class and sort of soil will produce. The same kind of crop is not always grown on the same soil nor on the same field from year to year. It is necessary, therefore, to choose one or more standard grains (always food grains, as food products are the ultimate standard of values) to represent the general or average produce. The crop most extensively grown on irrigated lands is paddy (rice); on unirrigated (or dry) lands several varieties of food grains are grown and the crop cultivated on the largest area according to the cultivation accounts is usually selected as the standard, or more often two crops are taken, the areas under other crops being for settlement purposes presumed to be cultivated with one or other of these according to the relative value of the crop. A fair average outturn of the standard grains is then ascertained per acre of each class and sort of soil, and this is called 'the grain outturn.' (The term 'grain values' usually adopted in settlement reports has been discontinued as being misleading). The criterion of such outturns is experience, and this is sought for in experiments by officers of the department, in the knowledge acquired during long years of service by Tahsildars and similar responsible officers of Government, in the records of produce entered in the old village accounts, and in the admissions of the ryots. The actual experiments consist in reaping, threshing and measuring the crop upon small areas in selected fields. The number of experiments in some districts has exceeded two or even three thousand. The results are taken, as a general guide to the grain outturns and no more. The experimental reapings (or *kails* as they were called), however, are now to a great extent given up, and general inquiries and statistics already collected are relied on instead.

45. The grain outturns are next commuted into money. The commutation price is fixed on an average struck on the prices of a long series of years so as to ensure that the advantages of good and losses of bad years may be balanced, and to preclude all risk of the Government share of the produce being sold to the ryot at a price which he cannot always command; and a percentage allowance (formerly 10 and now, generally 15 per cent.) is made for cartage of grain to markets and for merchants' profits. For all the earlier settlements, the average taken was based on the prices of 20 years from 1845 to 1864. But since 1885 the period has, under the orders of Government, been altered into the non-famine years immediately preceding each settlement. From the results obtained by applying the commutation rate a deduction of from one-sixth to one-fourth is usually allowed on account of vicissitudes of season, and in view of the fact that the survey areas of fields include small extents of uncropped land, such as field ridges, irrigation distributaries, &c. Against the average value of the produce thus determined has to be set off the 'cost of cultivation,' the estimation of which used to be one of the most difficult and the most conjectural of the various steps in connection with a settlement. The items of cost usually included in the estimate were (1) ploughing cattle, (2) agricultural implements, (3) seed, (4) manure, (5) labour required for ploughing, sowing, reaping, &c. The method of calculation varied according to the description of crops grown, and of culture, as well as according to the practice of making the various payments in each district. In some, these are made in grain, in others in money, and in some in both grain and money. The payments made in grain were converted into money at the commutation price adopted for the settlement. The cost of bullocks and of the implements of husbandry was distributed over the number of years during which they were estimated to be serviceable, and the other items were calculated for each year. Calculations were made for the area which could be cultivated with one plough and one pair of bullocks, and then reduced to terms of an acre. The usual practice was to work out the expenses for the best soil, and then to proportionately diminish this standard as the quality of soil

descends. This method is open to objection on the ground that the cost of cultivating poor soils is greater than for superior soils. But it is to be borne in mind that the cultivator is content with a much smaller relative outturn from inferior soils and omits many processes such as repeated ploughings, manuring, weeding and hoeing, which are resorted to on the higher class lands. Now the cultivation expenses are taken to be the same as has been already determined in neighbouring settled districts. These expenses being deducted from the gross assets, *i.e.*, the value of the total outturn, the result is the approximate net produce of the land under examination, and half of this is taken as the Government demand.

46. The principle always has been that the assessment is to be moderate. The old rates were generally based on 50 per cent. of the gross produce for wet and 33 per cent. for dry land. When revision began the maximum was reduced to 30 per cent., the average being about 25 per cent. But in the course of time a gross produce percentage was not considered sufficiently accurate. Net produce was to be ascertained by deducting the cost of cultivation, &c., and in 1864 the Government share or revenue was fixed at half the duly ascertained net produce.

47. For the sake of simplicity and to avoid multiplication of rates, the classes and sorts of soil which have been found by experience to yield alike or very nearly so are arranged in grades called 'tarams;' it follows that the values of half the net produce of the different classes and sorts of soil falling in the same grade are very nearly equal. Only one rate of assessment is therefore fixed for each grade, and, as far as possible, these rates are adjusted, so that the descent from the highest to the lowest may be by an uniform amount in each grade. As soils possess different productive powers when irrigated and dry, it is necessary to adopt two scales of tarams, one for wet lands and another for dry lands. As all villages have not the same advantages in respect of proximity to markets, facilities of communication, *e.g.*, roads, canals, railways, means of irrigation, or position with regard to the sea, or rivers, or hills, and the character of the subsoil, inequalities would arise if the same set of wet and dry rates were applied throughout the tract under settlement. Villages are, therefore, arranged in groups, generally two or three for a district according to circumstances, and the irrigation sources are arranged in classes; the rates of assessment are worked out as detailed above for the lands in the normal group of villages and under the normal class of irrigation, and are applied to those in the other groups and classes by being raised or lowered one grade as the case may be. Thus, the rate of assessment on good loamy black-cotton soil under the first-class irrigation would be the same as that on the best loamy black-cotton soil under second-class irrigation. If sufficient water is obtainable, two crops of rice are frequently grown on 'wet' lands. In such cases, a charge equal to half the original assessment is made for the use of the additional supply of water. On unirrigated lands, the fixed assessment remains unaltered, whatever the number of crops raised, unless water be taken to irrigate a crop from a Government source, in which case a charge is made for the water so taken. Deductions are allowed if water has to be raised on to the fields by mechanical contrivances. And it should be clearly understood that no extra assessment is levied, because of the existence of wells, whether in 'wet' or 'dry' lands.

48. This system has gradually been perfected in simplicity and breadth. Taking all the settled districts there are at present not more than 37 rates in the wet scale ranging from Rs. 12 per acre to As. 12 and 30 in the dry varying from Rs. 5 per acre to As. 2. At one time (in 1879) it was thought possible to draw up standard tables of rates including all classes and sorts of soil which could be applied at once to each field in a district so soon as the classification of the soil was known. It was suggested that instead of laboriously working up, as theretofore, to a table of rates, settlement operations in a new district should commence with the determination of such a table of rates as on consideration of the general conditions of the district, and of the rates adopted in other and neighbouring settled districts similarly conditioned might be deemed suitable. In pursuance of this suggestion, a standard table of rates in which were embodied the more salient features of every settlement that had been made was drawn up. Government was at first opposed to the adoption of this method, but, after some correspondence with the Secretary of State, the tentative adoption of the principle was

sanctioned. Subsequently in 1884, when submitting proposals for the settlement of the Madura district, Mr. Wilson, the Director of Settlement, tested this standard scale by working out rates for each class and sort of soil, taking the outturn and cultivation expenses from the sanctioned settlements of adjoining and similarly situated districts, and the commutation rates from the price returns of the Madura district. The result showed that the process of verification adopted by the Director could not with safety be dispensed with. It was, therefore, resolved that for each district, the settlement of which is taken up in future, an independent scale should be worked out on the data supplied by the settlements of other similarly situated districts without reference to a standard scale.

49. The rates so determined applied to the survey areas placed under each class and sort of soil give what are called the financial results of the new settlement for a village, taluk or district. Upon these data a settlement scheme is drawn up by the Deputy Commissioner, in which he enters into full particulars of the political and revenue history of the tract or district under report, gives details of the physical features of the country, goes into statistics and resources, and discusses the several processes worked out by him in arriving at the results indicated above. He then argues as to the fairness of the revision of assessment proposed by him, and explains the causes which influenced the enhancement or diminution in assessment in any locality or localities as the case may be. These proposals are reviewed and revised, if necessary, by the Board of Revenue and Government. When a settlement scheme has received Government sanction, a notification giving a brief summary of the principles on which the new money rates were worked out is prepared and published in the District Gazette.

50. Certain subsidiary matters connected with the assessment are then attended to. For instance, the area to be registered as entitled to irrigation under each source is finally revised, extended or curtailed as the state of water-supply renders it necessary.

51. The interstitial holdings included by the Survey Department in a single survey field are measured and distinguished by separate entries in the accounts. Opportunity is also taken to divide common lands, to allot grazing grounds, and to transfer lands improperly assessed as 'wet' to 'dry' and *vice versâ*. After the completion of these preliminaries, tickets, otherwise called rough pattás, are distributed to the ryots. A notice is affixed to each naming the time and place for the hearing of all objections to new entries and rates. On the day named in the notice, those who have cause for complaint appear with their village officers before the settling officer, and their complaints, as redressed or rejected, are entered in the settlement diary. The accounts are then corrected with reference to this final settlement, and the completed registers of each village with all names entered in the vernacular and in English are printed. This register, called the *Settlement Register*, is the foundation on which the whole revenue administration rests. It forms a complete 'Domesday book' recording accurate information regarding every separate holding, large or small. The area is given in acres and cents or hundredths of acres, and the assessment thereon stands in parallel columns. A single field on the survey map may actually be divided amongst twenty ryots. In such a case there will be twenty sub-letters, and each ryot will have a separate sub-line in the register giving full particulars of his *holding*, even though the extent of it be no more than one-hundredth part of an acre. From the register is prepared a ledger known as the *chitta* which gives each ryot's personal account with Government. Every field or fraction of a field held by the same ryot is picked out from the settlement register, and entered in this ledger under his name with particulars of area, assessment and other details. The total of the area shows the extent of his different holdings in the village, and the total of the assessment is the amount due thereon by him to Government. A copy of this, his personal account, is given to each ryot with a note as to the date on which each instalment falls due and is known as his *pattá*.

52. An English descriptive memoir giving full details touching each village and its settlement, and an account of all lands held tax free or on favorable tenure is also printed. A sketch map of the village showing the tanks and channels, and all similarly assessed fields laid out into blocks is attached to it.

The descriptive memoirs of all the villages in each taluk consecutively numbered are bound into one or more volumes with their respective eye sketches which thus supply complete information regarding every village. The work of introducing the settlement by issuing pattás to the proper persons is one of the most important parts of the process of settlement. In the districts first settled, it was thought sufficient to issue pattás in the names of persons entered in the accounts as they then stood, but latterly, more has been done and many thousands of pattás have, after due inquiry, and where no civil disputes arise, been changed from the names of deceased ryots or vendors to those of the actual occupants of the lands exhibited in them. As an average district contains 139,000 Government ryots and 10 lakhs of fields, these proceedings have involved considerable labour. It may be noted that a settlement imposes not only an acreage charge on the lands in each present ryot's holding, but it fixes the charge on each acre of waste likely to be cultivated hereafter.

53. The duration of the present settlements is 30 years. During that period, neither the grain outturns nor the commutation rates are altered. But, as under the ryotwárí system, each cultivator is free to hold or relinquish whatever fields of his holding he likes, or to take up other available fields, and as he is entitled under certain circumstances, to deductions from his total assessment, there must be an annual settling up to show what lands each ryot has actually held, and what amount, on all accounts, he has actually to pay for the year. This process called the annual settlement or *jamábandi* is conducted not by the special department but by the ordinary revenue staff. In this way the information recorded in the settlement registers is kept correct up to date, so that when the period of existing settlement expires and revision becomes requisite, it will merely be necessary to determine what the revised rates of assessment shall be, and to substitute these for the existing rates entered in the village accounts. In furtherance of this object, a new appointment was created in 1891 of a Deputy Director of Land Records, whose primary duty it is to see that the various accounts prescribed, and the record of holdings and cultivation are properly maintained. Measures are now being taken to bring the survey maps up to date. The classification of the soil and the determination of the grain outturns will not be done over again. Simply the commutation rates at which the value of the produce is converted into money will have to be revised in consideration of the difference in the average rates of prices ruling during the series of years adopted for calculation before the settlement and during the settlement period. The deduction made on account of vicissitudes of season and for merchants' profits may be altered, and the expenses of cultivation will, of course, vary with the alteration in prices of the items included in the calculation. The rates of assessment may also be raised by alteration in the grouping of villages owing to improvements made in communications, opening of new markets, &c., and in the classification of irrigation sources on account of improvements effected at the cost of Government.

54. It was once contemplated that after the existing assessments had been carefully revised, a settlement should be made which should be permanent both as regards 'grain outturns and commutation rates'; but this policy has now been formally abandoned.

55. The time for re-settlement has already arrived in the Trichinopoly and Gódávari districts, and in the course of the next 10 years the fixed period will expire in Kurnool, Salem, Kistna, Nellore and part of Cuddapah and Tinnevelly.

56. Settlement of Inám Claims.—The settlement as described above only applies to the land under ryotwárí tenure. If, however, there is land in the village, consisting of a few fields, or even a division of the village, held revenue free, or at a reduced rate, such an area is shown in the village registers. But it may be that a whole village is *inám*. If so, it constitutes a separate estate, like a zamíndárí, and does not come within the scope of the settlement. Government has no claim to the land or to the revenue, unless there is a fixed quit-rent, which is recorded as is the permanently settled revenue or "peshkash" of the zamíndárí estate. There was accordingly a special procedure under which the right and title of the holders of these favored estates was elucidated, and put on a sound basis; and the

quit-rent, or reduced rate, where the estate is not entirely revenue free, determined by rule. All Native Governments were in the habit of rewarding favorites, providing for the support of mosques, temples, religious schools, shrines, and for almsgiving, and the maintenance of Bráhmans or Muhammadan saints, &c., by granting the revenue on the land, whether they granted the land itself or not. In later days these grants were made rather recklessly. With a view, therefore, to preserve the revenue from being frittered away for nothing or on titles which would not bear examination, while at the same time securing to the people endowments and maintenances which the sense of the community would desire to maintain, a special Inám Commission was appointed in 1858 to deal with the subject. Its work consisted in validating and issuing title-deeds for ináms lawfully in possession for 50 years, and in resuming others. For the purposes of the Commission, all kinds of grants were dealt with, whether they included the right in the land or only the Government revenue. Next to validating titles the chief operation of the Commission was the enfranchisement of the ináms. In the case of an inám held for personal benefit, the holder could either retain it subject to inability to alienate, and to the actual terms of the tenure, or he could enfranchise it, *i.e.*, convert it into his own private property by payment of a moderate annual quit-rent, or a single lump sum, equal to so many years' purchase of the quit-rent. The work of the Commission, as a separate department, was brought to a close in November 1869; but work of the same kind still continues under the charge of a Member of the Board of Revenue before whom the cases of the still unenfranchised ináms may come. The Commission has dealt with 486,459 titles affecting 7,365,546 acres. The demand for the revenue year ending 30th June 1892 under the different kinds of settlement above described was as under—

	RS.
Zamíndárí	50,57,453
Ryotwár including miscellaneous revenue	378,56,698
Whole inám villages	6,68,940
Minor ináms	21,71,145
Total ...	457,54,236

57. Cost of Settlement Operations.—The subjoined statement exhibits the expenditure incurred in each district by the Survey and Settlement departments from the commencement of the operations up to the end of the official year 1892–93 and the financial results of the ryotwárí settlement for the revenue year ending with 30th June 1892 in the districts in which the operations of these departments have been completed. There was a net increase of over 37 lakhs of rupees in the revenue, that is, a return of 15·3 per cent. on the total outlay :—

Districts.	Years of settlement.	Outlay.		Financial results.		
		Survey Department.	Settlement Department.	Demand prior to settlement.	Demand in fasli 1301.	Increase or decrease.
		RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.
Ganjám	1878–80 and 1883–84.	8,74,613	3,95,883	6,66,409	7,66,395	+ 99,986
Vizagapatam	1889–90	6,70,800	1,54,976	2,22,389	2,55,886	+ 33,497
Gódávari	1862–63 and 1866–67.	7,04,152	3,14,106	20,71,993	30,48,633	+ 9,76,640
Kistna	1866–67 and 1873–74.	10,16,478	6,06,331	30,22,585	42,79,419	+12,56,834
Nellore	1873–75	5,97,756	5,78,208	17,65,004	20,91,370	+ 3,26,366
Cuddapah	1874–75 and 1877–83.	14,84,562	12,68,006	15,84,484	16,74,893	+ 90,409
Kurnool	1865–69, 1872–75 and 1877–78.	9,99,044	5,59,771	13,26,436	12,86,712	– 39,724
Chingleput	1875–78	9,17,422	4,34,679	13,86,814	15,95,487	+ 2,08,673
North Arcot	1881–86	8,33,765	9,35,665	19,46,556	21,01,040	+ 1,54,484
Trichinopoly	1864–65	3,63,412	3,68,893	16,20,787	15,86,952	– 33,835
Madura	1886–89	13,34,656	5,34,954	16,52,602	17,13,587	+ 60,985
Tinnevelly	1873–78	9,19,539	7,06,241	25,15,165	27,34,106	+ 2,18,941
Coimbatore	1878–82	14,74,874	7,42,540	25,51,819	27,90,881	+ 2,39,062
Nílgiris including Wynaad.	1884–87 and 1889–90.	10,71,562	1,23,126	77,329	1,36,634	+ 59,305
Salem	1870–74	8,36,160	6,02,984	17,76,911	17,50,195	– 26,716
Malabar-Wynaad ...	1888–89	7,18,223	1,56,626	82,654	1,71,198	+ 88,544
	Total ...	148,17,018	84,82,989	242,69,937	279,83,388	+37,13,451

58. Settlement operations were in progress at the close of the past official year in the districts of Bellary, Anantapur, South Arcot, Tanjore, Malabar. The work has since been completed in the South Arcot district. The other districts and one taluk in South Canara are expected to be finished by 1896–97, and the remaining taluks of the latter district will be finished in 1897–98, when the settlement of the whole Presidency will be complete.

59. Law.—With the exception of Regulation XXV of 1802 under which the permanently settled estates were constituted, there are no legal enactments specially affecting Settlement officers. They work under departmental rules. The jurisdiction of Civil Courts over questions affecting the rates or amount of assessment is saved by section 58 of Act II of 1864—(The Revenue Recovery Act).

LAND REVENUE TENURES.

60. Introduction.—Whatever be the correct theory of law or political economy as to the nature of the rights of the Government in respect to land, an abstract question which has been much discussed, it is apparent that the Government, as representing the interests of the people at large, must exercise a considerable amount of interference in affairs connected with the land. Whether this is called executive administration or exercise of a proprietary right is not of much importance. A modern Government assumes large powers of interference under the unwritten traditional law of this and all other countries. The subject of land tenures under the Government will be classified here according to the extent to which the Government has parted with its own powers to control the disposal of, or the revenue demand on, the land; beginning with the cases of greatest alienation and ending with those of least. A classification according to either one or other of these two descriptions of control would have been preferable; but the subject is too complex to admit of such treatment. The following are the main varieties of land tenures under the Government: (i) Perpetual freeholds, with fixed tenure, a title-deed showing property as against the Government, and no demands representing either a land-tax or a share of the produce. (ii) Enfranchised ináms, that is to say, grants of land or of the land-tax due thereon, with fixed tenure, a title-deed showing property as against the Government, and a quit-rent fixed for ever, calculated at a beneficial rate. (iii) Zamíndárís or landed estates, with fixed tenure, a sanad or title-deed showing proprietorship as against the Government, and fixed land dues, with obligation for the zamíndár to enter into written engagements with his tenants. (iv) The so-called unsettled pálems or estates without a sanad and with land demand which may be raised at the pleasure of the Government. (v) Holdings of ryots or farmers under what is termed ryotwárí, with fixed tenure, but without a sanad expressly declaring proprietorship, and with a demand varying under certain special circumstances. (vi) Inám holdings, that is to say, grants of land given by the Government as emolument or in charity, with no title-deed showing unconditional property, with a tenure dependent on the fulfilment of certain conditions, the decision as to which rests with the Government, and with a demand calculated as under ryotwárí but at highly favorable rates, the difference between these and the normal rates constituting the emolument. (vii) Land held on special conditions as (*a*) on improvement leases called cowles, and (*b*) under the favorable rules for planting topes or groves of trees. (viii) Unassigned lands still on the hands of Government, to which, as part of village areas, certain persons have a preferential claim when application is made for their occupation. (ix) Unassigned lands still on the hands of Government without any such restriction.

61. Perpetual Freeholds.—Absolute and perpetual freeholds have not existed in this Presidency until quite recently, and can now be acquired only by taking the benefit of the rules for the redemption of land assessment or quit-rent on enfranchised ináms, or by purchasing land under the waste land rules. As the land-tax is the main constituent of public revenue, it is not allowed to be redeemed universally. Redemption is permitted only in the case of (1) sites of buildings, (2) gardens of limited extent attached thereto, and (3) hill plantations of exotic

products, such as tea, coffee, cinchona, &c. In all these cases, proprietors are allowed to redeem their land-tax, the rate of redemption being twenty-five times the sum annually paid on the land as assessment or quit-rent. The cost of survey and demarcation is borne by the person who redeems the assessment. In zamíndárís the registered zamíndár alone is given the right to redeem the land-revenue. In the case of ryotwárí lands, the proprietor holding directly from the Government has alone the right. Applications for the redemption of land-revenue are disposed of by Collectors subject to an appeal to the Board of Revenue. On payment of the redemption money in full, with the cost of survey and demarcation, the party redeeming the assessment is furnished with a title-deed in a certain prescribed form. The redemption of quit-rent on enfranchised ináms introduces the question of the inám tenures of this Presidency, but it is only necessary here to mention that inámdárs holding lands enfranchised from service or from Government resumption, but subject nevertheless to a quit-rent, may redeem that quit-rent in perpetuity at twenty years' purchase. The holders of freeholds have of course unlimited powers of alienating, devising, or disposing of their land. It will be observed that the freehold is absolute against that demand of the Government only which represents the Government right to share the produce, and gives no immunity from other Government demands, such as for artificial irrigation, roads, sanitation, education and so forth; in all of which cases the land may be subjected to separate cesses or demands. The land also will always be liable to attachment, in the same way as any other land, in the event of its becoming obnoxious to any legal penalty which authorizes its attachment or sale. The redemption in no way affects sub-tenures, rights of occupancy, or other similar rights; and the freedom conferred is absolute only as against the Government.

62. INÁMS ENFRANCHISED, BUT UNREDEEMED.—Inámdárs, that is holders of ináms who have accepted the terms of enfranchisement, but have not redeemed the quit-rent payable on their lands, call for notice here. They pay quit-rent, but their tenure, as regards security of occupation without conditions, and fixity of land demand, is superior to that of any class of landholders other than those who have redeemed. They have full powers of alienation, while they are protected from the periodical revision of the ryotwárí rates contemplated by the Revenue Settlement Department.

63. ZAMÍNDÁRÍS.—In the case of zamíndárís, the land has been perpetually assigned by the Government, with a proprietary title, at any rate as against itself. The land-dues technically called "peshkash," however, still remain as a charge on the land. Zamíndárs hold under a "sanad-i-milkiyat istimrár" and give in exchange a corresponding kabúliyat or acceptance. Zamíndárs are at liberty to transfer, without the previous consent of the Government, their proprietary right in the whole or part, however small, of their zamíndárís to any person they please by sale, gift, or otherwise; and such transfers are to be held valid and to be respected by the courts and officers of Government, provided that they are not repugnant to the Muhammadan or Hindu law or to the regulations of the British Government. In order to be valid against the Government, and in order to liberate the transferor from his liability to Government dues, such transactions must be first registered in the Collector's office, and where the alienation is of a sub-division of the estate, the peshkash on the sub-divided portion must be determined by the Collector. The Government does not regulate the succession to zamíndárís. It sometimes interferes to recognize a *primâ facie* claimant in cases of demise and pending decision of the law courts, but does nothing more. The zamíndár is the owner of all waste land, or land not held by cultivators within his estate, and he has certain powers of selling up cultivators for default of payment of rent. The land-dues here are permanently fixed, and may be taken therefore to be no longer a share of the produce but a tax. The land being "permanently settled," that is to say, the land-revenue on it being fixed for ever, no increase of revenue accrues to the State as more and more land is brought under cultivation. Since the land-revenue on these estates was fixed, their value has doubled, but the benefit goes to the zamíndár alone. The fact that the zamíndár has to pay a fixed demand does not exempt him from liability to general, local and municipal taxes. Zamíndárs have to keep up the regular establishment of village karnams or accountants; they appoint these officials, but a

civil court alone can remove them. About one-fifth of the whole Presidency is under zamíndárí tenure. The principal ancient zamíndárís found by the British Government on its assumption of the country are Vizianagram in the Vizagapatam district, Pitliápuram in the Gódávari district, Venkatagiri in the Nellore district, and Ramnad and Sivaganga in the Madura district; but there were numerous other large estates of the same sort, especially in the north.

64. PÁLEGÁR ESTATES.—Pálegárs hold in the southern and western portions of the Madras Presidency very much the same position as the zamíndárs of the northern districts. Originally pálegárs were the descendants of officers of police and revenue agents of the Hindu sovereigns, who advanced themselves to the position of chiefs possessing military forces and strongholds. Gradually they reached the condition of tributary feudatories and proprietors of lands. Most pálems have been granted permanent settlement under Regulation XXV of 1802, with sanads. The pálems for which no sanads have been granted are called unsettled pálems. Practically there is no difference between the settled and unsettled pálems, except that in the former the Government is precluded for ever from raising the revenue, and in the latter the Government may or may not have that power.

65. RYOTWÁRÍ TENURE.—The ryotwárí system of holding under the Government has now been the principal tenure of this Presidency for more than half a century. It is difficult to define it in one or two words. Even the Bombay Revenue Code, which is the law governing the similar tenure in that Presidency, avoids a definition of the tenure, and merely describes certain of its incidents, attributes and limitations. In Madras there is no law on the subject, Regulation XXV of 1802 having never been held to be applicable to ryotwárí lands. The difficulty of definition arises from no other cause than the inapplicability to oriental tenures of the phraseology of European landed property. The terms of the engagement can easily be enumerated, and these terms are sufficiently well understood and practically acted on by the persons concerned. No serious difficulty has as yet arisen owing to any difference of opinion as to the interpretation of the ryotwárí contract. In ryotwárí tenure the Government deals with an individual, who is technically assumed to be acting on his own account and not to be a middleman. As he is usually a very small holder, this is often actually the case. The Government allows a ryot, who has once acquired possession, to remain in possession as long as he pays the Government dues. Even when he becomes a defaulter, the Government merely sells such portion of his land as is sufficient to cover the amount due, and under cover of a special law for so doing; it does not dispossess him by any form of eviction other than that provided by the legislature under Madras Act II of 1864. If a ryot without authorization takes possession of assessed waste land, the Government nevertheless does not evict him. If, however, there is another applicant with better claims, the land is assigned to the latter, who is left to obtain possession from the intruder by civil suit, if necessary. The Government concedes to the ryot complete power to alienate the land by lease, mortgage, or sale, and only stipulates that, unless he formally registers such alienation with the Collector, he will remain liable for all Government dues on the land however accruing. The trees on his lands, however valuable, are absolutely his property, and nothing is charged for them except in the case of palmyras in the district of Tinnevelly. When however a ryot applies for unoccupied land at the disposal of Government, the payment of the estimated value of the trees already existing thereon is ordinarily a necessary precedent to its grant. The most important item in the yearly demand, namely, the normal land-tax on each field, is fixed in advance and is liable to revision according to present arrangements only once in every thirty years from the time of the first settlement. Even when a revision takes place, it has been guaranteed that no increase of the land-tax shall be made on account of improvements made by the cultivator himself. Moreover, the ryot has the power of yearly increasing, decreasing, or entirely abandoning his holdings. The variation of his demand arising from this cause and also from the concessions made or extra benefits conferred every year is decided at the annual settlement or jamábandi. The ryotwárí system has taken the place in most localities of the Muhammadan system of renting whole villages to a single individual and leaving it to him to sub-rent to the villagers. It is popular with the people, and creates an elastic revenue, which

expands as increasing population and prosperity cause more land to be taken up. On the other hand, it must be observed that the absence of middlemen causes a most serious amount of detailed labour on the part of the Government.

66. Though the State has a right to fix the land-tax at its discretion, it does so in accordance with certain principles. In ryotwárí land it is held that, with a few exceptions, its proper share is half the value of the net produce of the land after the expenses of cultivation have been deducted from the gross produce. At the commencement of the ryotwárí settlement, the tax was determined in a somewhat rough-and-ready manner, which left many anomalies and inequalities to be afterwards rectified. The worst of these have been amended from time to time, and at the present time there is a Survey Department which determines the exact area of the villages and sub-divisions of villages and fields, and a Settlement Department which calculates the rate of assessment for each field in accordance with the 'half-net' principle. The calculation of produce and the assessments thus revised are to be in force for thirty years. In the Gódávari and Kistna districts and part of Kurnool an important deviation has been allowed from the 'half-net' principle in the case of land irrigated by channels led from the great anicuts across the Gódávari, Kistna and Tungabhadra rivers. The land-tax there has been calculated as if the land were not irrigated, and the irrigation is charged for at a uniform rate per acre. Further information regarding the Survey and Settlement Departments which underlie the whole ryotwárí system will be found under the special sections allotted to those subjects.

67. It has already been mentioned that the Government has in times past furnished a title-deed setting out what is there called proprietary right in the case of all zamíndárs either ancient or created within this century, and that it still continues to furnish title-deeds to persons who redeem the land dues in perpetuity by a lump sum payment. No such title-deed, however, is given to ryots holding under ryotwárí tenure, and they are left to make their own arrangements as to creating a title when they dispose of lands by private transaction. When first a ryot is put in possession of land, he is furnished with a document called a pattá. But this is liable to revision at each annual settlement, and is merely a document to show that, according to the Government register, the ryot holds for that year such and such survey fields, or parts of them, and that the Government looks to that ryot and no other for the Government land-dues until further notice. As long as the ryot actually holds the land according to the terms of the register, the pattá is of service to him, as showing that the Government will not attempt to put any one else in possession and will not exercise any powers of attachment or resumption of the land without first dealing with him; and the attachment to landed property is a sufficient motive to make this a very important consideration. In the law courts, however, a pattá is very weak evidence to prove possession, inasmuch as there is nothing to show that the arrangement therein indicated has not been superseded by some subsequent private transaction, and even at the outset the revenue officials in issuing a pattá do not attempt to do more than give it to the person who has the best *primâ facie* claim to possession. Regulation XXVI of 1802, section 3, declares that a court shall not recognize transfers of land other than those shown in the register of landed property, and the register coincides with the pattás issued; but this provision is held to make unregistered transfers invalid only as against the Government, and with reference to the Government dues. The pattá, in fact, does not assume to be any muniment of title, a subject on which the Government is silent; but is only a document indicating certain fiscal arrangements between the Government and the individual mentioned in it. The pattá given to the ryot is his security against the Government. No document of acceptance is received by the Government from the ryot, as it is considered unnecessary, the law making the land and its produce liable to attachment for arrears in the land-dues in preference to any other claim and whoever be in occupation. A register showing the settlement with each individual is however maintained in each village; ryots who are able to read are allowed to examine this register and can sign their names in it if they wish.

68. Occasions will often arise when persons wish to transfer their ryotwárí pattás to others. This the Government is always ready to do on production of

an application in the office of the Collector or other duly authorized officer. If the application, attested by the village officers, is presented by both the parties, the officer at once orders the change of registry. But when only one of the parties makes the application, and produces a duly executed and registered deed evidencing the transfer, the officer, on being satisfied of its genuineness, gives notice in the District Gazette that the transfer of registry has been applied for and that unless objection is made to it within three months of the date of publication of such notice, the transfer shall be ordered at the end of that period. If objection is made, an inquiry is held and according to the result of it, the transfer is ordered or not. A pattá is then issued in the name of the transferee at the next annual settlement. Meanwhile, as a rule, the new holder gets possession. In cases where transfer is sought under a decree from a Civil Court sanctioning the transfer, consent of the parties is of course unnecessary, nor is a notice published in the District Gazette. In the event of the demise of a person whose name is entered in the Government register, the Government itself takes steps to ascertain who is the proper successor. On the occasion of each demise, the village accountant reports to the Collector or other duly authorized officer and specifies the name of the person or persons who appear *primâ facie* to have the best claims to succeed, under the Hindu or Muhammadan law of succession, as the case may be. The Collector, when satisfied, causes a pattá to be issued in the name of the presumptive heir or heirs. The transfer of pattás is carried out as a departmental arrangement and under no legislative enactment. The most ordinary cases are where the son or sons succeed the father. Among Hindus property vesting in a person descends in the following order :—sons, sons' sons, sons' grandsons, wife, daughters, daughters' sons, mother, father, brother, brothers' sons, brothers' grandsons, paternal grandmother, paternal grandfather, his sons, grandsons and great-grandsons, paternal great-grandmother, paternal great-grandfather, his sons and his sons' sons and grandsons. The above is the ordinary line of succession in the case of divided or separate property. But undivided property, being held in common, vests in the surviving members; for instance if an undivided member of a family dies, leaving only a widow and a brother, the latter succeeds in preference to the former. The Muhammadan law of succession is more complicated. But the revenue authorities do not strictly go into the details of law in issuing pattás to the heirs of the deceased individuals. The pattá is issued to the *primâ facie* heir or heirs, leaving the question of possession and other rights to be decided in the civil courts. But when the courts pass their decrees in regard to succession, pattás are issued by the revenue authorities according to these decisions. The Hindu law of succession favors partition and creates very numerous sub-divisions of landed property with corresponding alterations in the pattás.

69. In both the cases of transfer just named, whether, that is to say, the transfer is effected before or after death, occasions will arise when either two parties wish to be entered jointly and severally in a joint pattá, or a person holding a pattá desires to split it up and transfer part of it. The former case will arise occasionally when partition is inconvenient, as, for instance, when the heirs to a single deceased holder are joint widows. The State does not encourage joint pattás, but it raises no absolute objection if such an arrangement suits the parties. The Government will not separate a pattá once made joint without the consent of all the parties, even though one asserts a grievance. The latter case, where it is sought to sub-divide a pattá, is of course of constant occurrence. There were formerly certain regulations checking the splitting up of fields marked off by the Survey Department; but these were abolished in 1875, and there is now no limit to the smallness of a holding for which a Government pattá will be issued.

70. Assessed land is vacant under various circumstances, as, for instance, owing to its having never been occupied, or to its having been relinquished by a ryot, or to its having lapsed to Government on a demise or at a sale for arrears of Government dues. When there are assessed lands in a village thus unoccupied, it is open to any individual, whether resident of the village or not, to apply for the land to be held by him under the terms of the ryotwárí tenure. All applications by strangers are invariably communicated to the villagers so that they may have the refusal, and it is only when they do not agree to take up the lands that

strangers are permitted to obtain them. When there are two or more applicants for the same land, preference is given to the ryot whose land adjoins, and when there is no such claimant, to the first among the applicants who is a ryot of the village in preference to a stranger. But no preferential claim on the ground of possession of the adjoining land, or of land elsewhere in the village, is admitted in favour of a ryot by whose relinquishment the land becomes unoccupied and available for allotment. In all cases applications for whole survey fields have preference over applications for portions only. The applications are in the first instance disposed of by the Tahsildar or officer in charge of a portion of the district called a taluk. From his decision an appeal lies to the Divisional officer if made within thirty days, and his decision is final. But the Collector and the Board of Revenue may entertain a further appeal in special circumstances.

71. Ryots are allowed to relinquish their lands provided they apply for permission to relinquish sufficiently early in the season to enable others to commence cultivation upon them. The dates up to which ryots are permitted to relinquish their lands vary in the several districts, so as to follow the first rains in each district. The lands relinquished must be accessible to others, otherwise the relinquishment is not accepted. For instance, a ryot would not be permitted to retain all the fields in his holding except the centre one, as this would not be an eligible holding for another ryot.

72. The tenures and settlements as between the Government and the payer of the land-dues in the districts of Malabar and South Canara are professedly a mere form of ryotwárí tenure. The special arrangements which exist in those districts between the landlord and his tenants do not as a rule affect the Government, and in dealing with the occupant the Government ignores as much as possible the existence of middlemen, or of interests other than its own. In some respects, however, there are considerable differences between this sort of ryotwárí settlement and the ordinary ryotwárí settlement, even from the Government point of view. For instance, there is at present no detailed survey in these districts, and the settlements are made not on fields but on holdings. A regular field survey is now in progress in the Malabar district and is being extended to South Canara. This survey will be followed by a settlement on lines similar to those adopted in the rest of the Presidency. Again, there are doubts as to how far waste lands in these districts are at the disposal of the Government, a considerable portion being at present claimed as private property. Remissions of the Government dues are never needed in Malabar or South Canara, owing to the certainty of the seasons and the lightness of the assessment.

73. Ordinary Inám Tenures of Land.—When the State has given up its right to the land-tax, or a portion of it, in favour of an individual or an institution, or to remunerate persons for performing certain duties, the grant is termed an *inám* or *mániyam*. A very large number of such grants was made by former governments, and it was a condition of most of them that they could not be alienated without the consent of the State, that they would escheat to the Government on the failure of male heirs in the direct line, and that they might be cancelled on the occurrence of any lapse. In some cases the grants were to be resumed after a certain number of lives, that is to say, after a certain number of successions by inheritance. Other ináms depended on the execution of certain religious observances, or the performance of certain State services. In 1858 a Commission was established to examine the titles of the possessors of ináms, and to enfranchise them, if they wished, by commuting for a moderate quit-rent the right of the Government to prevent alienation, to resume, or to demand service. There are still certain inám lands the holders of which have not accepted the terms of enfranchisement offered by the Inám Commission. These remain on the old and very restricted tenure. They are subject to favorably calculated dues on account of land-tax, but on the other hand they have a tenure very inferior to that of enfranchised inámdárs or even to that of ordinary ryotwárí holders. They cannot alienate their ináms. Succession is prescribed as above shown in a definite way. They hold only on the fulfilment of certain conditions, and the Government claims an absolute right to adjudicate as to the proper fulfilment of those conditions. In the case of village

service ináms the holders are bound to perform certain administrative duties, and are styled village officers: the succession to these ináms is governed by a special enactment, and is hereditary in most districts.

74. Lands held on Cowles, &c.—A *cowle* is an agreement to hand over land free of assessment for a certain period, or on payment for a certain period of a diminished assessment gradually rising to full assessment. In the meanwhile, the holder is subject to the terms of the contract contained in the cowle. The cowle tenure is usually granted to induce cultivators to break up unpromising waste lands. Though much used between zamíndárs, and other estate owners and their tenants, cowles are not in frequent use by the Government. Lands held under tope rules fall in reality, though not nominally, under this class of tenure. If the Government has good grounds under the contract for dispossessing the cowledár, it can do so and re-enter on the land. It will be noticed that this right of re-entry is never claimed in the case of an ordinary Government ryot.

75. Farming the Revenue.—The principle of farming out the land-revenue in certain localities for a certain period has almost disappeared. Some rents, however, still remain in the Vizagapatam, Gódávari, Chingleput, North Arcot and Salem districts. The revenue demand of the rented villages in the revenue year ending 30th June 1892 is shown below.[4] A large number of these are hill-villages not surveyed and not touched by the Settlement Department. The old joint-rent system, where the villagers themselves took up the lease and were jointly and severally responsible, has now entirely disappeared. The last trace of it existed a few years ago in the hilly parts of the Gódávari district.

76. Mirási Rights.—The rights which go by the name of *mirási* must be mentioned here. They are not sufficiently strong to be classed as tenures or rights against the Government, such as zamíndárí or ryotwárí; but they are sometimes more than the mere preferential right to occupy new land and they are recognized by the Government. Nearly all that remains now of the special rights of the old communal oligarchies is the claim by certain hereditary mirásidárs in the Chingleput district to fees upon waste land which may hereafter be brought under cultivation, and upon lands now occupied which may hereafter be thrown up and again re-occupied. These fees were formerly taken from the gross produce before the division of the crop, and were then paid to the mirásidárs both by the ryots and by the Government. They are now made payable entirely by the ryots, liberal allowance having been made with these on arriving at the money rates of assessment charged on their lands. The fee payable by the ryot under these circumstances is a yearly sum of two annas in each rupee of the Government assessment; this amount being held to represent the old average rate of 3 per cent. of the gross produce of the year. These fees are recorded by the Government in the land-revenue registers, but their collection is left to the mirásidárs themselves. The total amount in the Chingleput district is very small, but the right is tenaciously held to, and represents what was in former days a highly important institution. There are some mirási fees in Tinnevelly, and possibly also in other districts, but Government has taken no steps to recognize them. It should be mentioned that the word *mirási* means nothing beyond hereditary right, and that it is often applied to other rights than the special right now under mention, as for instance, to hereditary rights to village offices.

77. Unassigned Lands.—The unassigned land still in the possession of the State consists of all land which is not included in any zamíndárí, ryot's holding, or other land already given out by the Government for occupation. If it lies, however, within the boundaries of a village, certain prescriptive rights are conceded to the ryots of that particular village, probably as a relic of the old

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		RS.
[4]	Vizagapatam ...	1,44,851
	Gódávari ...	23,497
	Chingleput ...	5,475
	North Arcot ...	287
	Salem ...	40,969
	Total ...	2,15,079

village communal system, in the way of preferential claim to occupy; and this distinguishes the case for the purposes of the present classification from that of unassigned land not so situated. Unassigned land within a village will be either of the assessed class or the unassessed class. The mode in which assessed lands are applied for and taken up in the first instance has already been described. The unassessed land of a village is also at the disposal of the Government acting in trust for the interests of the village community. Subject to the instructions of the Government officers, certain portions are reserved for the gratuitous and communal use of the villagers, as the tanks, streets, channels, threshing-floor, burial-grounds, cattle-stand, &c.; while in all cases except in the town of Madras and some places on the West Coast, a house-site, and a backyard with permission to cultivate garden produce in it, are provided gratuitously for each family. The addition to or subtraction from the area of village-site is provided for by fixed rules. The unassessed waste lands of a village, which are not yet assigned, and which are not reserved for these special purposes, may be offered for sale in convenient lots free of assessment, and subject only to local taxes, *i.e.*, they become freeholds. In Tanjore and Madras the rules for the sale of unassessed waste land are not applicable and on the Nílgiris and Shevaroy Hills and in the Wynaad the arrangements in nearly all cases fall under the head next to be mentioned (para. 78). The prices shown below [5] are the upset prices fixed for each district and lands are made over to the highest bidder above that price. No lot within a village is allowed to exceed 10 acres except under orders of the Government, but one person may apply for contiguous lots. The lots are as far as practicable in parallelograms. In selling the land the existing and customary rights of the Government, of other proprietors, and of the public in existing roads and paths, and in streams running through or bounding the lands are carefully reserved, and when the sale is completed and money paid, a formally drawn up title-deed is granted to the purchaser by the Government. The land is surveyed and demarcated before the sale, and the cost is borne out of the sale-money if there be any purchaser, and, if there be no purchaser, by the first applicant at whose instance the survey has been undertaken. The first applicant has in all cases to make a deposit covering the cost of survey. Due notice is given to the public before sale, and any claims put forward are disposed of on their merits. The Government can however assign the unassessed land, if it wishes on pattá or on cowle in the ordinary way, instead of selling the land in the manner just described, and this is in practice almost the only course as far as land in the plains is concerned. The sale rules apply virtually only to hilly tracts, there being very few large stretches of unassessed waste land in the plains.

78. Unassigned land outside the limits of any village as defined by custom or the Survey Department is absolutely at the disposal of the Government. Such

[5] Upset Prices for Unassigned Land within Villages.

Districts.	Forest land.	Open land.
Arcot, North	5 rupees an acre ...	2½ rupees an acre.
Arcot, South	5 do. ...	2½ do.
Canara, South, Hill ranges	10 do. ...	5 do.
Do. plains	5 do. ...	2½ do.
Coimbatore	5 do. ...	2½ do.
Cuddapah	5 do. ...	2½ rupees.
Ganjám	2½ do. ...	5 rupees an acre.
Gódávari (*a*) ... ... } Kistna ... ... }	2½ do. ...	......
Kurnool	10 for black cotton soil.	5 rupees for all other qualities of soil.
Nallamalais	5 do. ...	......
Madura, Palnis	10 rupees an acre ...	5 rupees an acre.
Do. in the plains	5 do. ...	2½ do.
Malabar	5 per acre for Ponam land.	10 rupees per acre for the more open and level lands, exclusive of Wynaad.
Nellore	5 rupees an acre ...	2½ rupees per acre.
Salem (except Shevaroy Hills) ...	5 do. ...	5 do.
Tinnevelly, Hill ranges	10 do. ...	5 do.
Do. in the plains, all kinds ...	2½ do. ...	......
Trichinopoly	5 do. ...	2½ rupees per acre.
Vizagapatam	5 do. ...	For all kinds.

(*a*) The delta lands are excepted from the ordinary operation of the rules.

portions of land are very limited on the plains, which are fully occupied by village communities, but they abound on the hill ranges where the indigenous tribes have established only a very partial occupation, and where general occupation is only just springing up. The alienation of lands lying outside villages will fall in a few cases under the rules described in the last paragraph. On the Nílgiris and Shevaroys, and in the Wynaad, however, there is a special provision that there shall be no upset price except the cost of demarcation and survey, and the estimated value of the trees standing on the land, and that the lands shall be liable to assessment. Thus, on the Nílgiris, forest lands are assessed at Rs. 2 an acre, and grass lands, at 8 annas an acre. Grass lands planted with coffee, tea and cinchona, and forest lands are free of assessment for five years. In the Wynaad, all lands are liable to be assessed at Rs. 2 per acre, but forest lands will be exempt from assessment for three years. On the Shevaroy Hills all lands are liable to a uniform rate of 1 rupee per acre from the date they are taken up. In any of these cases the annual assessment may be redeemed at 25 years' purchase as already mentioned (para. 2).

79. Tenures other than those under the Government.—In a ryotwárí country the most important considerations connected with land tenures are those which concern the relations of the Government with persons holding immediately from it. The system of tenancy under such land-holders is however fully developed, registered ryots sub-letting their lands and living on the difference between the rents they obtain and the assessment they pay to the Government. The system is even a matter in which the Government is concerned, the interference of the Revenue officials between land-holder and tenant being often required under the law. In the districts on the East Coast, lands are rented out by the land-holders either for a fixed annual payment in money, or for a share in the produce. Ordinarily dry and garden lands are rented for money and irrigated lands for a share in the produce. Except in large zamíndárís, where rights have grown up from long possession, private tenants as a rule are tenants at will, and the leases are from year to year.

80. On the West Coast, tenancies are of a special nature, being more permanent than elsewhere, and the lands being generally leased out for a number of years. In South Canara, tenants are of two kinds, Múlageni and Chálageni. The *múlagenis* are permanent tenants under the *múlavargdár* or landlord, paying a fixed and invariable rent. These tenancy rights have been for the most part obtained from the landlord as grants in perpetuity on payment of a fine and on condition of paying annually a specified rent. Such tenants cannot be ousted except for non-payment of rent, and even in this case not till they have been fully recompensed by the landlord for the permanent improvements they may have made on the lands. Subject to payment of rent, they are at liberty to sub-rent, mortgage, or in some cases to sell their interest, and are rather a description of subordinate landlords than mere tenants. On failure of heirs the title lapses to the landlord. In granting land on múlageni tenure, conditions are now often imposed which are never found in the ancient deeds, *e.g.*, that on the rent falling into arrears, or the trees standing on the land being wilfully destroyed, the lease shall be forfeited. The *chálagenis* are temporary ryots under the múlavargdárs or múlagenis; their lease is for a limited term, usually one year, or even at will. In the case of these tenants the landlord has the right to raise the rent or oust the tenants whenever he pleases, when no period is fixed, after however reimbursing him for all permanent improvements made by him. Practically the tenants are seldom ousted unless they are heavily in arrears. In some large estates there is an intermediary tenancy, when the tenants have no written leases, but are in practice treated as múlagenis. The rents of múlagenis and chálagenis are paid either in money or a certain quantity of grain, and never by a share of the crop as in other parts of the Presidency.

In Malabar the tenures under which lands are held by tenants are Kánam, Panayam, Kulikkánam, and Verumpáttam. In the first two cases the tenant has some pecuniary interest in the land. In the case of *Kánam* the rent is paid to the *janmi* (landlord) after allowing the tenant a deduction on account of the interest on the sum advanced and the Government revenue of the land. This agreement generally extends over a period of twelve years, on the expiration of which it is

renewed or revoked according as the janmi and the tenant are on terms good or bad with each other. If the deed is renewed, the janmi is entitled to a fee or allowance calculated at 20 per cent. or more on the amount originally advanced. The sum so paid will not be shown in the deeds, nor will it be returned to the tenant at any time. If the janmi desires to resume the land, he has to make over to the tenant the whole of the deposit money and the customary value of any improvements which may have been effected by the tenant. This cannot be done before the expiration of the term of twelve years. If meanwhile the land deteriorates through the neglect of the tenant, he shall have to give compensation to the janmi for the damage thus sustained. In the case of *Panayam*, possession of land is given as security for a certain amount advanced. Rent is paid to the janmi after deducting the interest on the sum advanced at the rate specified in the deed. In some cases, when the deed provides that the mortgagee should pay the Government revenue, a sum on this account is also deducted from the rent payable to the janmi. When there is no period prescribed in the deed, the janmi may whenever he likes take back the land on payment to the mortgagee of the sum advanced. These mortgagees are not generally allowed to make improvements on the land. Unoccupied waste lands are leased on *Kulikkánam* right, generally for twelve years, and sometimes for longer periods, for the purpose of raising buildings and plantations thereon; when the land is returned to the janmi on the expiration of the term, the value of improvements made by the tenant is paid to him. In this as well as in the two foregoing cases, the right possessed by the tenants on the lands held by them is transferable. The death of either tenant or landlord does not affect the lease when there are surviving members in the family of either. Another kind of lease called *Verumpáttam*, or simple lease, is generally for one year, and sometimes for longer periods, and is terminable according to the terms shown in the deed. A rent, generally two-thirds of the produce of the land, is annually paid by the tenant to the landlord. In the case of leases for longer periods than one year, the landlord receives in advance the rent for a certain period not exceeding one year. The tenant receives no interest for the amount thus advanced, but on the termination of the lease the said amount is either repaid to the tenant or credit given him for the same against the rent due by him. There is also another kind of lease known as *Untaruti*, under which the landlord receives in advance the rent for a certain number of years and the land is let out to the tenant for the same period. The tenant has no more payments to make to the landlord. When the period expires, the land is returned to the landlord. This kind of lease is generally applicable to plantations.

81. The Government is not concerned in any way in transactions connected with land other than those already mentioned. It may be observed, however, that private mortgages are exceedingly common. Sums of money are frequently advanced upon landed security, the condition being generally that the mortgagee shall enter upon and enjoy the land for a definite period, though sometimes it is arranged that the mortgagor shall hold as a tenant of the mortgagee during the term, and sometimes the lands are hypothecated simply. Sub-mortgages are frequently made on the East Coast. It is not customary for an outgoing mortgagee to claim compensation for improvements. Private sales of land again take place, but by no means so frequently. Mortgages are most numerous on the West Coast, especially in Malabar, it being there considered disgraceful to sell absolutely the janm right, *i.e.*, birth-right or proprietorship. There are several kinds of Malabar mortgages, the principal being *Otti* and *Adima* Janm. The peculiarity of the latter mortgage is that the sum borrowed is not mentioned in the deed, and that its use is confined to Rájás, Nambudris, and heads of villages. In South Canara land and produce are separately mortgaged. If the land itself is mortgaged no interest is demanded. The mortgagor is sometimes permitted to reside upon the estate and allowed to cultivate a small portion in the capacity of a tenant, but the mortgagee pays the Government dues and transacts the whole business of the estate as if he were the proper owner. The mortgage bond always contains a clause that, as soon as the sum borrowed is repaid, the land is to be returned to the mortgagor, the latter paying the expenses of all improvement. A certain portion of the produce of the estate is frequently mortgaged for the discharge of interest on debts. In

this case it is stipulated that a certain quantity of rice is to be paid annually, but that the person receiving the rice shall be allowed no interference with the estate. Should the mortgagor fail in the payment, the land itself is to be made over to the mortgagee. The first of these Canara mortgages is termed *Bhógyádi* or living mortgage, the other *Tóradavu* or dead mortgage.

82. Law.—The Regulations and Acts relating to Land and Land Tenures now in force in this Presidency are shown in the subjoined table :—

Statute, Act or Regulation.	Description of the Statute, Act or Regulation.	Sections.
	Statutes.	
13, Edward I	Statute ('De Donis').	
3 and 4 William IV, Chap. 85.	Government of India	86.
	Government of India Acts.	
Act IV of 1837	Property in Land	1.
„ XII of 1851	Land Revenue, Madras Town	8 and 9.
„ XXVIII of 1860 ...	Boundary Marks Act	2 to 9 and 26 to 29.
„ XXIII of 1863	Claims to Waste Lands	Entire Act.
„ XXVIII of 1866 ...	Powers of Mortgages and Trustees	23.
„ VII of 1870	Court Fees Act	7, 8 and 19 (ix to xiii and xxii).
„ X of 1870	Land Acquisition Act	The entire Act.
„ XXIII of 1871	Pensions Act	4 to 9 and 14.
„ III of 1877	Registration Act	17, 18 and 89.
„ XV of 1877	Limitation Act	4 and sch. II, arts. 17 and 18.
„ VI of 1878	Treasure Trove Act	5, 6, 10 and 21.
„ I of 1879	Stamp Act	4, 5 and sch. II, art. 12 (*a*), 13 (*b*) and (*c*) and 15 (*c*) and (*g*).
„ II of 1882	Trusts Act	36.
„ IV of 1882	Transfer of Property Act	6 and 8.
„ V of 1882	Easements Act	Illustrations (*g*), (*i*) and (*j*) to s. 7 and s. 19.
„ VI of 1882 as amended by Act VI of 1887.	Indian Companies Act	200-A.
„ X of 1882	Criminal Procedure Code	45 and 88.
„ XIV of 1882	Civil Procedure Code	168 to 170 and 398.
„ XV of 1882	Presidency Small Cause Courts Act	41 and 49.
„ XIX of 1883	Land Improvement Loans Act	Entire Act.
„ XII of 1884	Agriculturists' Loans Act	Do.
„ XVIII of 1885	Land Acquisition Mines Act	Do.
„ II of 1886	Income-Tax Act	5 (1) (*a*), (*b*) and (*c*).
„ XIII of 1889	Cantonments Act	17, 19, 20 and 26 (1), (2), (3), (16) and (19).
„ IX of 1890	Railways Act	9, 10 and 15.
	Madras Regulations and Acts.	
Regulation XXV of 1802 ...	Permanently-settled Estates	2, 3, 4, 8 and 12 to 15.
„ XXVI of 1802 ...	Sale and sub-division of Malguzari (revenue-paying) lands.	2 and 3.
„ XXIX of 1802 ...	Zamíndárí Karnams	3, 5 to 7 and 9.
„ II of 1803 ...	Collectors	17, 18, 21 and 22.
„ IV of 1822 ...	Defining the true meaning and extent of Regulation XXV of 1802.	2.
„ VI of 1831 ...	Hereditary offices	2 and 3.
Act IV of 1862	Enfranchised Inams	The whole Act.
„ II of 1864	Revenue Recovery Act	2, 11, 32, 33, 41, 44 and 45.
„ VII of 1865	Cess for Irrigation Water	Entire Act.
„ VIII of 1865	Rent Recovery Act	Do.
„ IV of 1866	Exempting Enfranchised Service Inams from Regulation VI of 1831.	1 and 3.
„ VI of 1867	Land Revenue, Madras Town	3, 4, 17, 19 and 23.
„ VIII of 1869	Inam Title-deeds	Entire Act.
„ I of 1876	Separate assessment of alienated portions of permanently-settled estates.	Do.
„ V of 1882	Madras Forest Act	10 and 30.
„ II of 1884	Making further provision for the maintenance of Boundary Marks.	3 to 7.
„ IV of 1884	District Municipalities Act	47 (ii and iii), 63 to 75, 274, and 275.
„ V of 1884	Local Boards Act	57 (i and ii), 64 to 75 and 77.
„ VI of 1884	Rivers Conservancy Act	16, 17 and 21.
„ I of 1886	Abkári Act	39.
„ IV of 1886	Railway Protection Act	Entire Act.
„ I of 1887	Malabar Compensation for Tenants' Improvement Act.	Do.
„ IV of 1889	Salt Act	70.
„ IV of 1893	Village Cess Act	5 to 9.

83. Statistics.—The following table shows the number of holdings and holders direct under Government, with the area and assessment of the holdings, as ascertained for a very recent date (1891–92):—

Varieties of Tenure held direct from Government during the year 1891–92.

Nature of tenure.		Number of estates.	Number of villages.	Number of holders or share-holders.	Gross area.	Average area of each estate.	Average assessment of each estate.
1		2	3	4	5	6	7
		NO.	NO.	NO.	ACRES.	ACRES.	RS. A. P.
1. Revenue-payers paying more than Rs. 50,000 revenue.	(a) Individuals under law of primogeniture ...	14	9,183	14	7,139,597	509,971	1,96,372 0 0
	(b) Individuals and families under ordinary law ...	1	269	2	188,160	188,160	59,928 0 0
	(c) Village communities	...	...	...	...	...	...
2. Revenue-payers paying from Rs. 50,000 to Rs. 5,000 revenue.	(a) Individuals under law of primogeniture ...	46	9,750	47	11,456,354	249,051	14,937 0 0
	(b) Individuals and families under ordinary law ...	78	1,574	127	1,541,578	19,764	11,554 0 0
	(c) Village communities	...	...	...	...	...	...
3. Revenue-payers paying from Rs. 5,000 to Rs. 100 revenue.	(a) Individuals under law of primogeniture ...	72	994	82	918,097	12,751	1,844 0 0
	(b) Individuals and families under ordinary law ...	560	2,275	876	2,031,794	3,628	1,292 0 0
	(c) Village communities	...	...	...	...	...	...
4. Revenue-payers other than those of cultivating communities paying less than Rs. 100 revenue.	(a) Individuals under law of primogeniture ...	3	60	3	44,010	14,670	32 0 0
	(b) Individuals and families under ordinary law ...	95	460	109	230,978	2,431	56 0 0
	(c) Village communities	...	...	...	...	...	...
5. Peasant-proprietors paying separately...		2,951,129	29,356	4,848,328	21,824,069	7	15 0 0
6. Holders of wholly or partly revenue-free tenures.	(a) In perpetuity...	434,668	28,337	795,257	8,010,053	18	7 0 0
	(b) For life or lives.	1,647	702	2,265	30,998	19	9 0 0
7. Land-owners who have redeemed the revenue		562	189	668	4,866	9	...
8. Purchasers of waste lands		619	140	712	31,357	51	72 0 0
9. Others		14	812	14	106,146	7,582	9,188 0 0
Total ...		3,389,508	...	5,648,504	53,558,057	15·8	15 9 4

CHAPTER V.

CIVIL DIVISIONS OF BRITISH TERRITORY.

Introduction.—The English Act of Parliament, 39 and 40 Geo. III, c. 79 (1800), empowered the Court of Directors in England to determine what places should be subject to either of the Presidencies or Governorships. This power under section I, 21 & 22 Vic., c. 116, has passed to the Crown. The English Act of Parliament, 28 Vic., c. 17 (1865), section 4, authorizes the Governor-General in Council to declare by proclamation the territorial limits of the several Presidencies and Lieutenant-Governorships, making such new distribution and arrangement of territory as may seem expedient to him. Under section 5 the Secretary of State is given power to disallow this proclamation, and the Royal sanction is necessary when an entire zilla or district is transferred from one Presidency to another. The terms 'zilla' and 'district' so employed are not defined in any legal enactment; but they are by usage held to be synonymous, and to indicate the territorial jurisdiction of a District and Sessions Judge and a Collector, when that of both coincides. Chapter 15 of the same Act of Parliament makes somewhat similar arrangements as to the transfer of jurisdiction from one Presidency High Court to another. The internal divisions of the Presidency are at the present day various, but a general description of them may be given here.

2. Divisions relating to Law and Justice.—Madras is and always has been with small deductions a regulation province in the former acceptation of that term. Its power of making regulation dates from the first year of the century, and the new territories which have since been added to it have been for the most part made expressly subordinate to it so as to share its laws and regulations according to the interpretation of the law formerly in force. At the present day when the provisions of the Parliamentary Indian Councils Act of 1861 (24 and 25 Vic., c. 67) and the different Indian Local Laws Extent Acts have placed the non-regulation provinces of India on much the same footing as the regulation provinces, Madras still differs from the former in the particular that certain offices within it can only be held by Covenanted Civilians. The Kurnool and Tanjore districts, however, were not made amenable to the Madras Regulations and Acts until 1858. Further, India Act XXIV of 1839 partly de-regulationized certain hill tracts in Ganjám and Vizagapatam; this provision being confirmed by the Indian Councils Act of 1861 and two India Acts of 1874, the tracts still remain on the same footing. Under the 1839 Act the entire judicial administration, both civil and criminal, was vested in the Collector as Agent to the Governor in Council. As to law, the operation of all laws relating to the administration of civil and criminal justice was barred; power was given to the Governor in Council to frame rules for the guidance of the Agent. Again the mere fact of an Act appearing in schedule 2 of India Act XV of 1874, the Local Laws Extent Act, is held to be no definite evidence of its not being applicable in the Ganjám and Vizagapatam hill tracts. As a more modern step of a de-regulationizing nature, the tracts just mentioned with others making the list shown below [1] were placed in schedule I of India Act XIV of 1874 (Scheduled Districts Act) which gives the Government three powers. One to notify that the Act itself is applicable in the tract, and so constitute it a

[1] Tracts in this Presidency entered in the Schedules of India Act XIV of 1874.—*In Ganjám*—The Gumsúr Maliahs, including Chokapad; the Surada Maliahs; the Chinna Kimedi Maliahs; the Pedda Kimedi Maliahs; the Bodagada Maliahs; the Súrangi Maliahs; the Parlakimedi Maliahs; the Muttás of Koradá and Ronaba (otherwise called Srikarma); the Jaradá Maliah; the Jalantra Maliah; the Mandasa Maliah; the Budarasinghi Maliah; the Kuttingia Maliah. (2) *In Vizagapatam*—The Jeypore Zamíndárí; Golkonda Hills, west of the river Boderu; the Madugole Maliahs; the Kasipur Zamíndárí; the Pánchipenta Maliahs; Mondemkolla in the Merangi Zamíndárí; the Konda Muttá of Merangi; the Gumma and Konda Muttás of Kurupam; the Kottam, Rám and Konda Muttás of Palkonda. (3) *In the Gódávari district*—The Bhadráchalam taluk; the Rékapalle taluk; the Rampa country.

scheduled district 'de facto' as well as 'de jure;' the second to make declaratory statements as to such and such laws being in force in the tract, where there are doubts on the point; the third to extend to such tract Acts belonging to other parts of British India, but not yet applicable to the tract. These notifications require the previous sanction of the Supreme Government. It will be observed that the net result is to enable the Government to add to but not to subtract from the law in force in the tracts. In addition to the provisions of the Indian Councils Act, section 7 of India Act XIV of 1874 and section 8 (c) of India Act XV of 1874 reserve all the powers existing under the 1839 Act. The Act of 1874 was in 1879 applied by this Government in the Gódávari district. Under Act of Parliament 33 Vic., c. 3 (1870), entitled "An Act to make better provision for making Laws and Regulations for certain parts of India and for certain other purposes relating thereto," the Secretary of State may at any time by declaration add to the list of scheduled tracts shown in India Act XIV of 1874. This power has been applied to the tracts mentioned at foot.[2] The unit of judicial administration, criminal and civil, in this Presidency under the Muhammadan rule and so continued by the English was the 'zilla'—a term, however, not defined by any legal enactment, for which see the observation above. Madras Act I of 1865 enables the Madras Government to alter at pleasure the limits of existing zillas within the Presidency, no revision being reserved to the Supreme Government. For the purposes of criminal justice, section 7 of India Act X of 1882, the Code of Criminal Procedure, now also declares that every province (excluding the Presidency towns) shall consist of sessions divisions, and that every sessions division shall be a 'district' or consist of 'districts'; and the Local Government has the power under this section to alter the limits, or, with the previous sanction of the Governor-General in Council, the number of these divisions or districts. The Presidency town is a district in the above sense. Under section 8 the Government can divide any such district outside the Presidency town into sub-divisions, with power subsequently to vary the limits of the sub-divisions. The definition of 'district' for the purposes of civil jurisdiction is given in section 2 of India Act XIV of 1882, the Code of Civil Procedure, as the local limits of the jurisdiction of a principal civil court of original jurisdiction,

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[2] Tracts notified by the Secretary of State as added to those Schedules.—A. Gódávari.—(a) The unsettled Government villages in the Ernagudem taluk; (b) The villages of the ex-Mansabdar of Jaddangi; and (c) The following petty proprietary estates, viz.:—Bayyanagúdem, Billumilli, Jangamareddigúdem, Gutála, Gangolu, Pattesam, Polavaram Petta, Dandangi, Viravaram, Devipatnam.

B. I.—Ernagudem Taluk.

(a) *Settled Government Villages.*

Ganapavaram.
Taduváya.
Parimpúdi.

(b) *Agrahárams.*

Rágulapalle.
Sakkonda.
Dondapúdi.
Palacharla Ráyavaram.
Ayyavári Polavaram.
Srínivasapuram.
Pallipúdi.
Rámánujapuram.
Krishnapuram.

II.—Rajahmundry Taluk.

(a) *Lakkonda Sima.*

Gangárám.
Lakkonda.
Pidatamámidi.
Vanáyapádu.
Vojubanda.
Puttendorapálem.
Jaggampálem.
Jiyyampálem.
Rájárám.
Neladonalapádu.
Kondalapálem.
Kumárapádu.
Rájupeta Loddi.
Yamnapalle.
Vunmatta.
Chodarám.
Loddipálem.
Rájampálem.
Bodireddisivampatnam.
Gaddichinnampálem.
Mattapádu.
Kudumullapálem.
Vemmlana.
Attagondi.
Bandam.
Vuyyálamadugu.
Agrahárapádu.
Pedagarlapádu.
Goragumovi.
Pandapottipálem.
Kusamaranji.
Amudalabandu.
Doramámidi.
Yerrampálem.
Kottada.
Donalapalle.
Súrampálem.
Chinnagarlapádu.

(b) *Unsettled Independent Villages.*

Bayyanapalle.
Kotta Rámavaram.
Páta Rámavaram.
Vuppalapádu Narasápuram.
Ravilanka.
Pedda Bhímapalle.
Nellipúdi.
Lingavaram.
Molleru.
Kattumilli.
Rámadevipuram.
Dokulamanda Krishnavaram.

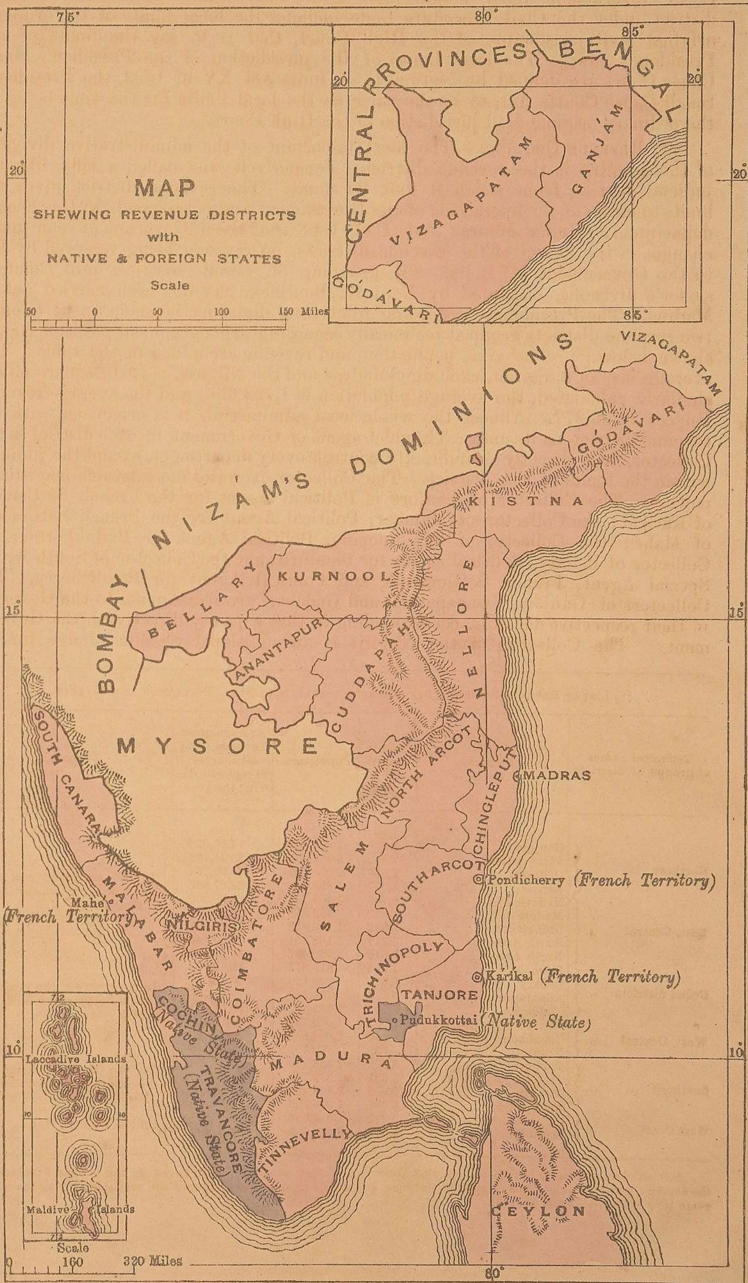
thereafter called a District Court. Such jurisdictory limits are definable by the Local Government under Madras Act I of 1865 before mentioned. A civil district under the Civil Procedure Code includes the local limits of the ordinary original civil jurisdiction of the High Court, that is to say the limits of the Presidency town. The local limits of the jurisdiction of the Presidency Small Cause Court are defined by section 17 of India Act XV of 1882, the Presidency Small Cause Courts Act, to be the same as the local limits for the time being of the ordinary original civil jurisdiction of the High Court.

3. Revenue Districts.—The most important of the administrative divisions of the country is the revenue district. Formerly it was called a zilla, like the judicial district, from which it took its name. The revenue district gives the limits to most of the operations of the Government and corresponds to the French department. Under Madras Act I of 1865 the Local Government can make changes in the extent of the revenue districts, no revision being reserved by law to the Government of India. The grouping of revenue districts into Commissioner's divisions, instituted by Lord W. Bentinck, has not been carried out in Madras. The Presidency, according to existing divisions, is made up of twenty-two revenue districts grouped technically according to geographical position, &c., as shown below.[3] The area, population, and revenue are added in the table. The average size of a district, excluding Madras and the Nílgiris, is 7,010 square miles; similarly calculated, the average population is 1,753,906, and the average revenue Rupees 32,00,377. Almost the whole local administration is organized with the revenue district as its unit. The chief agent of Government in each district is the Collector, who directly or indirectly controls every department, except the judicial, within the limits of the district. The Collector exercises considerable magisterial powers. The Collector of Tanjore is Political Agent for the French Settlement of Kárikál; the Collector of Malabar, Political Agent for the French Settlement of Mahé; the Collector of Trichinopoly, Political Agent for Pudukkóttai; the Collector of Bellary, Political Agent for Sandúru; and the Collector of South Arcot, Special Agent, French Settlements, and Political Agent for Pondicherry. The Collectors of Ganjám, Vizagapatam, and Gódávari are also Agents to the Governor in their respective districts, corresponding in that capacity direct with the Government. The Collector of the Nílgiris is an additional Sessions Judge for his

[3] List of Revenue Districts, grouped technically, with Area, Population and Revenue.

Technical names of groups of districts.	District.	Area in square miles.	Population.	Average gross revenue from all sources except salt during the year.	Position.
				RS.	
Northern	Ganjám	8,370	1,896,803	17,26,673	To the north and east along the sea-coast on the Bay of Bengal.
	Vizagapatam	17,242	2,802,992	20,41,159	
	Gódávari	7,857	2,078,782	63,09,154	
	Kistna	8,397	1,855,582	62,97,857	
East, Central ...	Nellore	8,765	1,463,736	28,29,259	
	Madras	29	452,518	38,94,036	
	Chingleput	2,842	1,136,928	18,17,392	
	South Arcot	5,217	2,162,851	46,60,140	
	North Arcot	7,616	2,180,487	37,32,632	In the centre of the peninsula and mostly south and east of Mysore.
Ceded districts ...	Kurnool	7,514	817,811	18,43,849	
	Bellary	5,975	900,126	20,43,597	
	Anantapur	5,275	708,549	13,22,776	
	Cuddapah	8,722	1,272,072	23,51,965	
West, Central ...	Salem	7,529	1,962,591	27,14,797	
	Coimbatore	7,860	2,004,839	37,59,487	
	Nílgiris	957	99,797	3,67,100	
Southern	Tanjore	3,709	2,228,114	66,84,821	To the south, forming the south-eastern boundary of the peninsula.
	Trichinopoly	3,631	1,372,717	20,33,657	
	Madura	8,808	2,608,404	35,49,803	
	Tinnevelly	5,387	1,916,095	34,77,633	
West Coast ...	South Canara ...	3,902	1,056,081	18,56,758	On the Western Coast.
	Malabar	5,585	2,652,565	32,20,473	

N.B.—Columns 3 and 4 have been compiled from the Census Report of 1891, pages 2, and column 5 represents the average gross revenue (excluding Salt Revenue, for which no districtwar figures are available) during the official years 1889-90, 1890-91 and 1891-92.



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Litho., Survey Office, Madras.

1894

district; and the Collector of Madras holds simultaneously the appointments of Collector of Sea Customs, Protector of Emigrants and Superintendent of Stamps and Stationery. The accompanying map shows the situation of the Revenue Districts. Each district is subdivided into taluks, and there are 159 Government taluks in all. The taluk answers simultaneously to the revenue pargana and police thána of Bengal. The 159 taluks include also zamíndárís, except some of the larger ones. Omitting the two exceptional districts of Madras and the Nílgiris, an average taluk may be said to comprise a population of about 223,000, a land-revenue of about Rupees 2,90,000, and an extent of about 893 square miles. The head of each taluk is styled a Tahsildar; he is an official of great influence and authority, and has also magisterial powers. Each taluk comprises from 50 to 400 villages, which constitute the ultimate unit for administrative purposes. There are in all 25,081 villages, excluding zamíndárí and inám villages. The hereditary village officials perform minor public offices, revenue and judicial. The heads of villages and village accountants collect and account for all revenue, rates and taxes, within their respective villages.

4. Other Divisions.—Though the judicial and revenue district, the term being nearly always synonymous, is the main unit of the administration, there are some minor variations. The Revenue Survey and Revenue Settlement departments work in specially selected areas. For Military purposes the Presidency is divided into three districts. The Salt and Abkári department has a northern, a central and a southern division—each under a Deputy Commissioner, with three sub-divisions for the northern and four each for the others under Assistant Commissioners. The Public Works department has six circles, each under a Superintending Engineer, comprising in all twenty-three ordinary and three special divisions in charge of Executive Engineers. For Educational purposes the Presidency is divided into four circles each under an Inspector of Schools. As regards the Marine department, the Presidency Port Officer is in charge of all the ports in the Presidency, a local Port Officer being stationed at the principal out-ports. Under section 5 of India Act III of 1877, the Indian Registration Act, the Local Government can form districts and sub-districts for the purposes of registration, and can from time to time alter the limits of such districts and sub-districts; the arrangements of registration districts are almost strictly conterminous with revenue districts.

CHAPTER VI.

CENSUS.

Introduction.—There will be no further census in this Presidency until the year 1901, and the method of work generally obtaining on such occasions can be inferred from the account of the proceedings in 1891 shown in the sketch history at foot.[1] The different operations involved in an enumeration were legalized by India Act XVII of 1890. The Commissioners of the Madras Municipality have power to make censuses under Government sanction according to the provisions of their Act. The Indian Arms Act (India No. XI of 1878) authorizes a census of fire-arms to be taken by the local Government on occasion. The census statistics now on record for this Presidency are shown in the following paragraphs. They will form the basis of administration until the year 1901. The same figures are shown in general and tabular form arranged by districts in Appendix.

2. Area.—The area of the Presidency is 141,189 square miles, or 150,798 square miles if the five Native States of Travancore, Cochin, Pudukkóttai, Banganapalle and Sandúru be included. Taking British territory alone, the only larger provinces are Burma and Bengal. The area of the United Kingdom is 121,481 square miles or 20,000 square miles less than that of Madras. The largest district is Vizagapatam, which contains 17,242 square miles, but nearly three-fourths of this extent lies within the Agency Tracts. If these tracts are excluded, Madura (8,808 square miles) is the largest district, and then come Nellore (8,765), Cuddapah (8,722) and Kistna (8,397). The smallest district except Madras, which is only

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[1] Sketch History of Censuses in the Presidency—*Early Censuses.*—The first census of the Madras Presidency was taken in 1822, when the population was returned at 13,476,923. The next enumeration, within the same territorial limits, was in the year 1836–37, when the numbers were returned at 13,967,395, or an increase of only 490,472 in fourteen years, a result doubtless chiefly due to defective census returns, but also attributable in some measure to the epidemic of cholera prevailing from 1818 to 1826 or 1827, and to the later epidemic, preceded by famine, which raged in 1833 and 1834. The first of the quinquennial enumerations was taken in 1851–52, when the population was found to have risen to 22,031,697, of which 273,190 belonged to the district of Kurnool, which had been annexed after the previous census was taken. An increase of 58 per cent. in fifteen years shows that one or other of the censuses was inaccurate, and it is now believed that many of the zamíndárís were omitted or their population much understated in the returns for 1836–37. The results of the four quinquennial enumerations are as follows :—1851–52—population 22,031,697; 1856–57—population 22,857,855; 1861–62—population 24,656,509; and 1866–67—population 26,539,052. The figures for 1861–62 and 1866–67 are exclusive of North Canara, which was transferred to Bombay in 1862, with a population at that time of about 300,000. The first regular census was taken in 1871. The preliminary work for this commenced in January 1871, and the final enumeration took place on the night of the 14th November 1871, giving a population of 31,597,872. The next census of the Madras Presidency was taken on the night of the 17th and on the morning of the 18th February 1881. In that census enquiry was made into certain subjects untouched, or but lightly touched, in the census of 1871. These were the 'civil' or conjugal condition of the people, their languages, their birth-places, their occupations, and the sub-divisions of their castes. Of these subjects the first three were wholly new; the other two were taken up more minutely than on the former occasion. Exceeding all other points in interest in the 1881 census was the prominence which the figures in the census tables gave to the effects of the famine of 1876–78. (2) *Census of* 1891.—The last census was taken on the night of the 26th February 1891. It differed from previous enumerations in that it was actually made during the night, except in the district of Malabar and certain wild forest and hill tracts. The information collected was much the same as in 1881, but more attention was paid to the subjects of caste and sect, and a return of those who could read and write English was obtained. (3) *Method of taking the Census.*—The country was divided into 145,138 blocks; these were grouped into 11,959 circles, and these again into 1,100 charges. The number of buildings in a block varied considerably, but the average was 52, of which 46 were occupied. It was intended that there should be one enumerator to each block, but it was not possible to get enough men and the total number of enumerators was 129,549. In addition to these there were 5,359 special enumerators for the census of travellers. The work of the enumerators was supervised by the Circle Supervisors and the Charge Superintendents. A number was painted on every building, which was then entered in the enumerator's book of schedules. Commencing on the 6th January 1891, the enumerator went round his block and filled up the schedules for all persons who were likely to be present on the census night. All he had to do on that night was to ascertain whether all the persons entered in the schedule were then present in the house, to score out those who were absent and to add those who had newly come. This preparation of a preliminary record is necessary in India where so few householders can read and write, for otherwise it would be impossible to take the census on a single night. It allowed, moreover, of the entries being thoroughly examined and corrected by the supervising agency. Special arrangements were made for the census of the houseless poor and of travellers by road, rail, sea, river and canal. On the morning of the 27th February each enumerator made an abstract of his schedules, showing the number of occupied houses and of males and females included in his block. From these abstracts statistics were compiled first for the circle, then for the taluk, the district, and the Presidency, and in this way the approximate total population was known on the 18th March 1891. The schedules were then sent to the abstracting offices at Madras, Calicut, Bangalore and Berhampore, where the numerous tables were eventually compiled. A report, dealing with the operations and the statistics, was completed in March 1893.

technically a district, is Nílgiris, the area of which is 957 square miles. The average area of a district, excluding Madras, is 6,722 square miles, which is about 300 square miles more than the area of Wales.

3. Population.—The population of the Presidency is 35,630,440 or some two millions less than that of the United Kingdom. If the feudatory states be included, the total population amounts to 39,331,062, which exceeds the population of France by more than a million. Bengal (71,346,987) and the North-West Provinces and Oudh (46,905,085) are the only Indian provinces which have a larger population. The population of the Bombay Presidency is only 18,857,044. Turning now to the district figures, Vizagapatam (2,802,992) has the largest population and then come Malabar and Madura, each of which has more than two and-a-half million inhabitants. There are five other districts with a population above two millions, viz., Tanjore, North Arcot, South Arcot, Gódávari and Coimbatore. If Madras and Nílgiris be excluded, there are only three districts with a population below a million—Bellary, Kurnool and Anantapur. Still excluding Madras and Nílgiris, the average population of a district is 1,753,906, which is larger than the corresponding figure for any other Indian province. Bengal comes nearest with an average of about a million and-a-half, but with this exception there is no province in which the average reaches a million.

4. Density.—There are on an average 252 persons to every square mile. Only two provinces in India and only three countries in Europe have a greater density. The two Indian provinces are Bengal and the North-West Provinces and Oudh where the density is over 400 to the square mile. In the United Kingdom there are over 300 persons to the square mile, in Holland about 360 and in Belgium over 500. The Native State of Cochin has 531 persons to the square mile, a density which is exceeded only in Belgium. Tanjore, with a density of 601, is the most populous of Madras districts. In the Kumbakónam taluk there are 1,104 persons to the square mile, and in the Cauvery delta, as a whole, there are 887 persons to that unit of area. The most densely populated taluk in the Presidency is Ponnáni in the Malabar district, where there are 1,152 persons to the square mile. There are 2·54 acres to each inhabitant of the Madras Presidency. In England and Wales the average extent is about 1·28 acres for each person. In the Ponnáni and Kumbakónam taluks the mean area to each inhabitant is about half an acre. If the population were distributed evenly over the surface of the Presidency, there would be 119 yards between each person. In the city of Madras the inhabitants are only 15 yards apart, in Ponnáni 56 yards and in the sparsely populated Agency Tracts 230 yards.

5. Towns and Villages.—There are 57,079 towns and villages. This number does not include uninhabited villages, and for this and other reasons given at length in the Census Report, the figure here given will not agree with the revenue returns. A 'village' is primarily a revenue unit of area, and this accounts for the apparent anomaly of an uninhabited village. The average size of a village varies very much in different districts. The number of towns is 214. Only the nine given below have a population exceeding 50,000 :—

Town.	*Population.*	*Town.*	*Population.*
Madras	452,518	Bellary	59,467
Trichinopoly	90,609	Negapatam	59,221
Madura	87,428	Tanjore	54,390
Salem	67,710	Kumbakónam	54,307
Calicut	66,078		

There are 27 towns with a population between 20,000 and 50,000. Large cities are more frequently met with in the north of India than in the south. The urban population of the Presidency is 3,406,105, or 9·56 per cent. of the whole population. The proportion of Musalmáns among the urban population is 14·24 per cent., while among the rural population it is only 5·48 per cent. Again of the total Musalmán population 21·55 per cent. live in towns, while of Hindus only 8·59 per cent. are found in urban areas. Among Christians 19·48 per cent. are dwellers in towns.

6. Houses.—The total number of occupied houses is 6,709,990 and the average number of occupants is 5·31. In towns the average is 5·60 and in villages 5·28. The district average varies from 7·53 in Madras to 4·30 in the Ganjám Agency. Of ordinary districts, South Arcot stands highest with an average of 6·88 and

Tinnevelly lowest with 4·54. Statistics regarding the nature of the roof were compiled in 1891, but in these occupied houses were not distinguished from unoccupied dwellings. The proportion of thatched houses is 81·72 per cent., that of terraced 8·89 per cent., while tiled houses form 9·39 per cent. of the whole. Similar statistics were not collected in 1881, but in 1871 the proportion of *occupied* houses with thatched roofs was 84·98 per cent. The improvement is really greater than these figures imply, owing to the different manner in which the returns were prepared on the two occasions. In Nílgiris only 51·10 per cent. of the houses are thatched; in 1871 the proportion was 86·1 per cent.

7. Increase of the Population.—In the 10·024 years that elapsed between the census of 1881 and that of 1891, the population of Madras increased by 4,803,327, or 15·58 per cent. There was moreover a net loss by emigration of some 250,000 so that the true rate of increase is nearly 16½ per cent. This high rate of increase is in a large measure due to circumstances connected with the great famine of 1877. That famine killed off the young and old and left a relatively high proportion of individuals at the reproductive ages. In the famine districts the rate of increase is 20·11 per cent., while in the area which was affected but little by the famine the rate of growth is only 12·85 per cent. In Tanjore the addition to the population was only 4½ per cent., but if the loss by emigration be taken into account the increase was 9·12 per cent. It has been estimated that in normal times unaffected either by famine, or the rebound from famine, the rate of growth is about 12½ per *mille* per annum, while over a long period, including seasons of all kinds, it is about 6¼ per *mille* per annum.

The census has shown conclusively that the registration of births and deaths is very defective, and the true birth-rate is estimated to be about 50 per *mille* per annum, while the true death-rate is probably not less than 35 per *mille* per annum. The expectation of life at birth is about 24½ years, while in England it is at least 43½ years. In Madras about 28 per cent. of the children born die before they complete the first year of life, and one-half of them never reach the age of twelve. In England, on the other hand, a given number of children born is not reduced to one-half until about 45 or 46 years from birth.

8. Age.—The chief feature in the age statistics is the high proportion of children and the low proportion of old people as compared with the proportions found in most European countries. These proportions are also higher than in 1881, especially in the famine districts. Taking the adjusted census figures, it is found that among males 15·85 per cent. are under five years of age, 28·60 per cent. are under ten, and 39·70 per cent. are under fifteen. Among females 16·35 per cent. are under five, 29·20 per cent. are under ten and 40·05 per cent. are under fifteen. If the period of 'useful life' be taken as 15 to 59 for males and 15 to 44 for females the proportions of workers are, respectively, 55·28 per cent. and 46·72 per cent. Of the male population 4·15 per cent. and of the female 4·20 per cent. are sixty or more.

9. Sex.—There are 1,022 females to every 1,000 males. The females outnumber the males in 13 districts, but in the remaining nine and in the Agency Tracts the males preponderate. The statistics show that this preponderance of the male sex is at least in part due to the omission of females in the returns, but it seems probable that in the Ceded districts there are local causes unfavorable to female life. An actual excess of males in that area was noticed by Sir Thomas Munro at the beginning of the century.

10. Religion.—The bulk of the people of Madras are Hindus. They number nearly 32 millions or 89·84 per cent. of the total population. The Musalmáns have a strength of two and-a-quarter millions or 6·32 per cent.; the Christians number 865,528 or 2·43 per cent.; and the so-called Animistics number 472,808 or 1·33 per cent. The Jains come next, but there are only 27,425 persons of this faith. As many as 14,503 persons did not return their religion, but nearly the whole of these were inhabitants of the Agency Tracts and may be assumed to be Animistic. This term has been used to denote the religion of the Khonds, Savaras and other similar tribes of the northern hill regions. More than one-third of the Musalmáns are found in Malabar, where they form nearly 30 per cent. of the entire population. The statistics tend to show that in this district and Canara there has been a

considerable conversion to Islám since 1881. The largest number of Christians is found in Tinnevelly and they are also numerous in Madura, Tanjore, Trichinopoly, South Canara and Kistna. The Christians have increased by 23·70 per cent. since 1881, and much of this advance in numbers is due to conversion. The increase is very high in Nellore, Kurnool and Kistna, but in Tinnevelly it is only 3·56 per cent., while the population, as a whole, of that district has advanced by 12·73 per cent. It is evident that there have been lapses in this ancient seat of missionary effort. Of the total number of Christians in the Presidency 95 per cent. are natives. The Protestants have increased at a greater rate than the Roman Catholics, but there are still two of the latter to one of the former. Among Hindus, 56·54 per cent. are Saivites, 41·10 per cent. Vaishnavites, 0·97 per cent. Lingáyats and 1·39 per cent. belong either to minor sects or have made no return. Statistics of sect were not compiled for Musalmáns, but it is well known that nearly the whole of them are Sunni.

11. Marriage.—The chief features in the statistics relating to the conjugal condition of the people are (1) the universality of marriage, (2) the comparatively early age at which it takes place, and (3) the high proportion of widows. Very few males and still fewer females go through life unmarried. Of males of fifteen years of age and upwards only about 25 per cent. are unmarried, and of females of this age only 5 per cent. are single. Of males of all ages only 3·44 per cent. are widowers, a ratio which is about the same as that found in England and Wales; but among females the proportion is nearly 20 per cent., and for women between forty and fifty years of age it is as high as 46·38 per cent. Among women of fifty years and over the proportion of widows is 78·17 per cent., while among men of the same age it is only 18·17 per cent. The Madras wife is, on an average, 10 years younger than her husband. There are about 330,000 more wives than husbands, and it is estimated that about 4 per cent. of the husbands are polygamous. Early marriage is of course most common among Hindus, but it is far from exceptional even among Musalmáns, Christians and the Animistic tribes. Thus even among Christians only 8·41 per cent. of the females over 15 are unmarried; for Musalmáns the percentage is 6·58 and for Hindus 4·74. There is very little difference also among the three religions as regards widowhood. Of the women who have been married 30·52 per cent. are widows, and the proportion is 30·86 per cent. for Hindus, 29·12 per cent. for Musalmáns and 27·14 per cent. for Christians. For the Animistic tribes on the other hand it is only 16¼ per cent. Taking the child-bearing period as 15 to 39 years of age for Indian women and as 15 to 44 for English women, it is found that in Madras 80·68 per cent. of the women at these ages are wives, against 49·14 per cent. in England and Wales. The other chief provinces in India show a higher percentage than that found in Madras. For marriage statistics relating to each caste reference must be made to the Census Report, but it may be stated here that early marriage and enforced widowhood are decidedly more common among the Telugu people than among the Tamil or Malayálam castes, while the Canarese occupy a position midway between the two. It has been estimated from these caste statistics that among 25 per cent. of the people the marriage of girls before puberty is the rule, that among another 15 per cent. it is fairly common, while among the remaining 60 per cent. it is rare. It is also estimated that among about 60 per cent. of the Madras population the remarriage of widows is allowed, but even among these people women who have reached middle life do not often marry again.

12. Education.—No less than 92·13 per cent. of the population are unable to read and write. For males the ratio is 85·12 per cent. and for females 99·00 per cent. Of the boys between 5 and 14 years of age only 11·71 per cent. are at school. Of girls between 5 and 9 only 1·51 per cent. and of those between 10 and 14 only 1·19 per cent. are under instruction. Notwithstanding this low average, education is more advanced in Madras than elsewhere in India, and it has made steady, if slight, improvement since 1871. Taking the three chief religions, the Christians have most education, the Musalmáns come next and the Hindus last. If Europeans, Americans and Eurasians be excluded, only 68,915 males and 2,550 females, or about one person in every 500 of the purely Asiatic inhabitants, can read and write English. Education is most advanced in Tanjore, Tinnevelly and Malabar and most

backward in the Agency Tracts, Vizagapatam, Anantapur and Salem. The low position of Salem is remarkable. Of the different castes the Bráhmans are the most generally educated, but they are surpassed by the Eurasian community. The Kanakkan, Karnam, Kómati and Náyar castes come next to the Bráhmans. The Náyar females are more educated than those of any other caste, but even among Náyars 87·47 per cent. of the females are illiterate. As regards the general diffusion of education among males, it is found that among 48·93 per cent. of the total male population the proportion who can read and write or are being taught is less than one in ten, while for the labouring classes generally it is only about two in a hundred. Female education is as yet little more than a name.

13. Language.—Dravidian languages have been returned as their mother-tongue by 92·44 per cent. of the inhabitants of Madras. Tamil, or its dialects, is spoken by 14,116,455 persons, Telugu by 13,653,674, Malayálam by 2,688,332, Canarese by 1,480,048, Uriya by 1,292,163, Hindustání by 817,146 and Tulu by 463,712 individuals. Other languages spoken by considerable numbers are Maráthí, Gujaráthí, Khond, Savara and Gond. Gujaráthí chiefly occurs in the form of the dialect spoken by the Patnúl caste of weavers.

14. Infirmities.—At the Census of 1891, statistics were collected regarding insanity, blindness, congenital deaf-mutism and leprosy. There was a decrease as compared with 1881 under all heads except deaf-mutism. The returns show that one person in every 4,635 is insane, one in every 978 is blind, one in every 1,320 is a deaf-mute and one in every 2,824 is a leper. Insanity and leprosy appear to be especially prevalent among Eurasians. It does not appear that leprosy is more common on the coast than inland, but the statistics point to a damp climate being more favorable to this disease than a dry one.

15. Caste.—The total number of castes appearing in the census tables is 1,568, and in addition to these there are 96 names which were returned as castes but are in reality titles, names of sects, &c., and not true castes. The classification of the castes is based on the traditional occupation of each, but in respect of 639 names returned by 7,196 individuals, it was found impossible to make any classification and it is probable that many of these are not real castes. On the other hand many of the groups which have been treated as a single caste are in reality composed of numerous sub-divisions which have little in common with one another. Some of the largest castes are Kápu (2,454,000), Vellála (2,146,000), Kamma (851,000), Kallan (410,000), Náyar (394,000), Velama (382,000), Maravan (308,000), Agamudaiyan (297,000), Telaga (296,000), Ambalakkáran (168,000), Gauda (152,000), Tottiyan (146,000), Kálingi (115,000) and Nattamán (97,000) among agriculturists; Palli (2,151,000), Paraiyan (2,059,000), Mála (1,363,000), Pallan (781,000), Cheruman (258,000) and Holaya (135,000) among labourers; Khond (327,000), Savara (182,000), Yenádi (85,000), Porojá (82,000) and Kondadora (81,000) among hill and forest tribes; Bráhman (1,121,000) among priests; Máppilla (823,000), Balija (711,000), Chetti (638,000), Labbai (348,000), Kómati (288,000), Vadugan (181,000) and Kavarai (169,000) among traders; Kammála (470,000) and Kamsala (248,000) among artizans; Ambattan (180,000) and Mangala (153,000) among barbers; Kaikolan (313,000), Sále (232,000), Devanga (133,000), Patnúl (72,000), Togata (59,000) and Sáliyan (51,000) among weavers; Tsákala (327,000) and Vannán (225,000) among washermen; Golla (787,000), Idaiyan or Yádavan (628,000) and Kurumba (336,000) among shepherds; Vániyan (152,000) and Téli (53,000) among oil-pressers; Kummara (149,000) and Kusavan (124,000) among potters; Uppara (100,000) among salt-workers; Boya (352,000), Palle (130,000) and Sembadavan (52,000) among fisherman and palki-bearers; Tiyyan (537,000), Shánán (551,000), Ídiga (154,000), Billava (126,000), Gamalla (122,000) and Ízhuvan (121,000) among toddy-drawers; Mádiga (678,000) and Chakkiliyan (444,000) among leather-workers; Mutrácha (114,000) among village watchmen; Odda or 'Wudder' (458,000) among earth-workers; Valaiyan (286,000) and Bédar or Védan (95,000) among hunters; and Ándi (90,000) among beggars.

Among Musalmáns, in addition to the Máppillas and Labbais already mentioned, Sheik (618,000), Saiyad (110,000) and Pathán (108,000) are large tribes. Lingáyat was returned as caste by 96,000 persons.

Europeans, including Americans and Australians, number 13,417, of whom 8,350 are males and 5,067 are females. The males have increased by 1,021 and the females by 1,555 since 1881. As many as 12,236 of these Europeans are British subjects; and of this number 5,454 were born in the British Isles. The Germans number 368 and the French 365. There were only 146 Germans in 1881.

The number of Eurasians is 26,643, which is 20·76 per cent. in excess of the number in 1881. It is probable, however, that the return in 1881 was inaccurate. Of the total number as many as 11,943 are residents of the city of Madras and 4,194 are inhabitants of the Malabar district.

16. OCCUPATION.—The statistics of occupation were compiled on a new system so as to include under each occupation not only those who exercised it but also those who depended upon it for their means of livelihood. The occupations returned were classified under 465 heads, which were grouped into 77 sub-orders; these again were reduced to 24 orders and the latter were arranged in seven classes. The most important class is pasture and agriculture, which supports 61·39 per cent. of the people. Then come the preparation and supply of material substances (18·64 per cent.), indefinite occupations, including general labour (9·92 per cent.), personal services (2·99 per cent.), Government (2·56 per cent.), commerce, transport and storage (2·47 per cent.), and lastly professions (2·03 per cent.). Among the urban population, however, only 19·67 per cent. depend on agriculture while the preparation and supply of material substances support 37·61 per cent. Landowners and farmers and their families number 16,704,000, and there are 4,110,000 agricultural labourers. The great excess of farmers over labourers is a noticeable sign of the extent to which peasant proprietorship of one kind or another prevails in the Madras Presidency. In addition to the above nearly one million persons who are shown as depending upon some non-agricultural occupation have also some interest in land or agricultural occupations. The only large industry is weaving, which with the connected occupations of spinning, dyeing, &c., supports 1,320,000 persons. The supply of drink, condiments and narcotics affords subsistence to a million and a quarter, but of these 440,000 are toddy-drawers and sellers and 460,000 are keepers of the well-known 'miscellaneous' (*chillara*) shop. About a million are dependent on personal and domestic services; more than one-half of these are washermen and about one-quarter are barbers. There are about half a million leather-workers, 300,000 carpenters and the same number of masons and builders. Priests, school-masters and quack-doctors are the chief professional men; lawyers number only about 18,000. There are nearly three million unskilled labourers, of whom 2,609,000 fall under the head of general labourers.

CHAPTER VII.

LEGISLATING AUTHORITY.

1. Constitution of the Legislative Council [1].—The Legislative Councils in India, composed as they are of Official and Non-Official Members, were constituted under 24 and 25 Vic., c. 67 (the Indian Councils Act, 1861), and enlarged by 55 and 56 Vic., c. 14 (the Indian Councils Act, 1892). The former statute provided that the Council of the Governor of Fort St. George for the purpose of making Laws and Regulations should be composed of the Ordinary Members of Government, and of a number of Additional Members, besides the Advocate-General, to be nominated by the Governor, and that the number so nominated should be not less than four nor more than eight, not less than half of them being non-officials; while under the latter statute the minimum and maximum of the Additional Members have been fixed at 8 and 20, respectively, and the Governor is empowered to nominate them subject to such regulations as the Governor-General in Council may, from time to time, frame, on this behalf, with the approval of the Secretary of State in Council. It has been decided to raise the Madras Legislative Council to its full legal strength, and the Council will, under the Regulations above referred to, consist of (1) the Ordinary Members of Government, (2) the Advocate-General, (3) nine Official Members nominated by the Governor, (4) seven Non-Official Members nominated on the recommendation of the Madras Municipality, the District Municipalities and Boards, the Chamber of Commerce, Madras, and the Senate of the University, and (5) four non-officials nominated by the Governor, of whom one must ordinarily be a Zamíndár paying a peshkash of not less than Rs. 20,000. An Additional Member once nominated holds office for a period of two years, but his seat may be filled up if he is absent from India or is unable to attend to his duties for a period of two consecutive months, and also, if a non-official, when he accepts an appointment under the Crown. At the meetings of the Council, the Governor or, in his absence, the senior Civil Ordinary Member present presides. The quorum fixed for the transaction of business is four, exclusive of the President. In the event of the members differing in opinion, the President has, if necessary, a casting vote.

2. Business at the Meetings of the Legislative Councils.—Of the rules for the conduct of business at the meetings of Council made under the provisions of section 37 of the Indian Councils Act of 1861, the most important relate to the introduction of Bills. When leave has been obtained for the introduction of a Bill either from the Council when sitting or from the Governor during an adjournment, the Bill is printed, together with a Statement of Objects and Reasons, and a copy is furnished to each member of the Council. On the day fixed for the introduction of a Bill, or on any subsequent day, the principles of the Bill and its general provisions may be discussed, and, if necessary, it may be referred to a Select Committee for report. All reports of Select Committees, as well as the Bill and the Statement of Objects and Reasons, must be published in the official gazette, and copies must be furnished to the Members of the Council before the measure is brought up for final consideration.

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[1] Rules having the force of Law relating to the Legislative Council.—Under the Indian Councils Acts, 1861 and 1892, the following have the force of law in this Presidency :—(1) Regulations for the nomination of Additional Members to the Legislative Council, dated 13th April 1893; (2) rules for the conduct of business at meetings of the Madras Council for making Laws and Regulations, dated 27th February 1863, and amended on 23rd November 1882 and (3) rules for the discussion of the financial statement and for asking questions in the Council, dated 14th February 1893.

3. While the Indian Councils Act of 1861 restricts the business of the Legislative Councils to the discussion of Bills and passing of Acts, the Councils Act of 1892 extends their functions and authorizes them also to discuss the annual financial statement of the province and to ask questions relative to the administration subject to certain reservations. When the Council deals with the financial statement, the discussion should be confined to those branches of revenue and expenditure which are under the control of the Local Government, any criticism of Imperial finance being forbidden. Similarly in respect of administrative matters, the interrogation and the response thereto should be limited to matters within the jurisdiction of this Government; and when those matters have been the subject of controversy between the Governor-General in Council or the Secretary of State and the Local Government, no question should be asked except as to matters of fact, and the answer should be confined to a statement of facts. Questions must be so framed as to be merely requests for information and must not be in an argumentative or hypothetical form or defamatory of any person or section of the community. Questions, prejudicial to public interests, may be disallowed by the President; other questions and the answers given to them are to be entered in the proceedings of the Council.

CHAPTER VIII.

SYSTEM OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

THE LAW COLLEGE.

1. DESCRIPTION.—The Law College was constituted a separate institution in 1891 with the primary object of affording instruction to candidates for the B.L. Degree Examination of the University of Madras; it has also been thrown open to candidates for other examinations in law, including the First and Second Grade Pleadership Examinations of the High Court and the U.C.S. Law Examinations. The college is conducted by a principal assisted by two professors, six assistant professors and a lecturer, subject to the control of the College Council and the Director of Public Instruction. The academical year consists of two terms—a spring term of fifteen weeks' duration and an autumn term of twenty weeks' duration, commencing, respectively, in January and in July of each year. The curriculum for B.L. students is in accordance with the University regulations. The principal and the two professors, besides seven other members, constitute the College Council. To suit the convenience of students holding an appointment, the work of the college is carried on between the hours of 7 and 9 A.M. and between 5 and 7 P.M. Lectures are delivered mostly by the principal and the professors, while the assistant professors are chiefly entrusted with the conduct of tutorial classes.

MADRAS MEDICAL COLLEGE.

2. DESCRIPTION.—The Madras Medical College, which was established in the governorship of Sir Frederick Adam in 1835, was originally a school of medicine in which medical subordinates were prepared for the public service, but it now also prepares students for the medical degrees of the Madras University. It is under the control of the Director of Public Instruction, the Surgeon-General being ex-officio visitor. The college consists of four departments, viz., the College department educating for the University Degrees, and the Apothecary, Hospital Assistant, and the Chemist and Druggist departments, educating for the college certificates of qualification. In the College department, the students qualify for the examination for the degree of Bachelor of Medicine and Master in Surgery by five years' study; and for the degree of Licentiate in Medicine and Surgery by four years' study. The period of study for the L.M.S. course will shortly be extended to five years. The minimum qualification for entry to both sections of this department is that candidates must have passed the First Examination in Arts. A scale of fees has been laid down for all students admitted into the College department and also for private students entering the other departments. The Apothecary department is for military pupils qualifying for employ as military apothecaries, the test for entry being a competitive examination. The instruction given in this department is exactly the same as that undergone by students qualifying for the L.M.S. degree. Female students may belong to any one of the four departments. The entrance examination to the Apothecary department for female students is the Matriculation or the Upper Secondary Examination. At present female students pay no fees except a registration fee of Rs. 5 for each session. The Ráyapuram Auxiliary Medical school having been abolished, the classes were retransferred to the college in 1887–88, and now constitute the Hospital Assistant

department. The minimum educational standard qualifying for admission into this department is the Matriculation Examination. Government stipendiary and Burma Hospital Assistant pupils have to undergo, in addition, a competitive examination before admission. The students of this department consist of Native Military pupils qualifying for employment as Military Hospital Assistants, Civil Medical pupils qualifying for employ as Civil Hospital Assistants under the Local and other Governments or Local Boards, and private pupils qualifying for the Hospital Assistant diploma. The entrance examination of the Chemist and Druggist department is the Matriculation; pupils after a two years' course of instruction are eligible for the examination qualifying for the College diploma of Chemist and Druggist. The academical year extends from 1st October to 30th June inclusive, and is divided into a winter term of six months ending on the last day of March, and a summer term of three months ending on the 30th June. The annual examinations of the college are held in June, the University examinations in Medicine in July. The college has a good pathological and anatomical museum, besides a museum of botany, materia medica and comparative anatomy; it has laboratories in which practical chemistry and practical hygiene respectively are taught, and there is a separate building for the study of practical anatomy; it has also a library, which is supplied annually with a selection of professional works. The staff consists of a principal who is also professor of medicine, nine professors, four lecturers and seven assistant teachers. The course of instruction consists of anatomy, botany, chemistry, physics, pharmacy, physiology, materia medica, comparative anatomy, surgery, practice of medicine, pathology, dental surgery, hygiene, midwifery and diseases of women and children, diseases of the eye, and medical jurisprudence. These lectures are under certain conditions also open to the public on payment of certain stipulated fees. The attendance at lectures delivered here is recognized in Great Britain as part qualification for degrees or diplomas in that country. The students obtain clinical instruction in medicine and surgery, &c., in the general and other civil hospitals at Madras. The average annual total cost of the institution for the five years ending 1892–93 was Rs. 1,12,842, the average income from fees being Rs. 19,462.

3. Auxiliary School.—The Auxiliary Medical School at Ráyapuram was established in 1877 to meet a deficiency in the strength of the Subordinate Medical establishment during the Madras Famine. The school was affiliated to the Medical College in 1879. In 1883 the Government abolished the junior department of the Medical College, as above mentioned, and established the school as a permanent institution for the education of hospital assistants. The staff consisted of a superintendent, who was also professor of medicine and surgery, and five lecturers. The test for entry to the grade of hospital assistant was a competitive examination. The students attending the school were divided into three classes. They were required to undergo a course of three years' training before they could be found qualified for the grade of 'hospital assistant.' The academical year extended from the 1st October to the 30th June, and was divided into a winter session of six months and a summer session of three months. The annual and final examinations were held in June. The students received clinical instruction in the Native Infirmary at Ráyapuram and the Lying-in Hospital attached to the Monegar Choultry. There were 86 students in this school in 1883–84. The institution was worked in the same year at a total cost of Rs. 15,325–12–8, the fees amounting to Rs. 702. It was abolished in 1887–88 and the classes were re-transferred to the Medical College as stated above.

COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE.

4. Description.—The College of Agriculture, located at Saidapet, is attached to the Educational Department, the Director of Agriculture being consulted on all important matters connected with the management of the college. The staff at present consists of a principal and five assistants. The Superintendent, Civil Veterinary Department, also lectures on veterinary science. The course of instruction extends over three years, commencing on the 1st July of each year, and

embraces a thorough study of the following subjects:—agriculture, veterinary science, inorganic chemistry, organic chemistry, botany, physiography, surveying and levelling, and agricultural engineering. The instruction is essentially practical, and for this purpose the college is provided with a museum and two laboratories, and has attached to it a large botanical garden, a farm of 87 acres and a veterinary hospital. The students appear for the Government Technical Examinations and, should they qualify in all the prescribed subjects, are awarded the diploma in agriculture. The students before admission must have passed the Matriculation Examination or the Middle School Examination in the first-class, and, unless in Government service, must be above 16 and below 25 years of age. There are seven scholarships awarded annually, the Collectors of districts nominating in rotation. Two scholarships are awarded annually to qualified Muhammadans, or failing them to others under certain specified conditions. Provision is made for the gratuitous admission of school teachers. Special courses of lectures can be attended on payment of a reduced fee. The Native State of Mysore maintains a large number of students at the institution. Many of the passed students are employed in farming or coffee planting and in posts connected with agriculture. The annual net cost of the college is about Rs. 30,000.

COLLEGE OF ENGINEERING.

5. Description.—The college affords theoretical and practical instruction in subjects qualifying students for the professions and employments of (1) Engineer, Civil or Mechanical, (2) Engineer Subordinate, (3) Draftsman, and (4) Surveyor. There are four different courses of instruction for these classes, and a fifth for the technical instruction of persons who are maistries or artisans or the sons of such. (1) *Engineer class.*—Persons who have passed the First Examination in Arts of an Indian University are eligible to compete for admission to the Engineer class. About half the numbers are generally graduates in arts. The course extends over five years, of which the last two are entirely given to practical work. During the first three years a sound course of instruction is given in pure and applied mathematics, in physics, chemistry, and geology, in building and machine construction, in drawing, and in surveying. Much of the instruction is of a practical character, especially that imparted in the workshop and engineering laboratory, in survey field work, in drawing and in the chemical laboratory. About seven hours a week are occupied in the workshop and engineering laboratory; but this period will be shortly increased. The students spend one month annually in camp for survey field work, and they make frequent visits of inspection to engineering works in progress. Examinations are held at the end of each year of study by a Board of Examiners independent of the college, and the marks gained count towards the final total. A proportion of marks is awarded by the college staff for work done during the course. Successful students proceed to the Public Works Workshop, where they go through the lathe, filer's and carpenter's shops, the foundry, and the instrument shop. They are then attached to the Public Works Department for one year, occupying half the time on buildings and half on irrigation works. The students who desire to become Mechanical Engineers spend the whole of the practical course in the Madras Railway Locomotive shops, or in the Public Works Workshops. Diplomas are issued at the end of the fifth year. The college course also meets the requirements of the Madras University, to which the institution is affiliated, and the students appear for the Engineering Degree Examination at the commencement of their practical training. The Engineer classes are usually small, as the scope for employment is limited. One appointment to the Engineer establishment of the Public Works Department is guaranteed annually, and falls to the senior student, provided he takes the degree. The remaining pupils aim at becoming Engineers or Assistants under Local Boards and Municipalities and in Native States, but many of them accept employment in the subordinate ranks of the Public Works Department. The Railways employ Europeans almost exclusively, while the Local Boards often promote subordinates of experience. The Native

Engineer commands a salary of from Rs. 80 to Rs. 100 at the outset. (2) *Engineer Subordinate class.*—Admission to the class of Engineer subordinates is regulated by a competitive examination, for which persons who have passed the Matriculation Examination are eligible to appear. Candidates with higher qualifications may be admitted without examination. The course extends over four years and-a-half, of which two and-a-half are spent in the college, one year in the Public Works Workshops, and one year on public works. The course in the college generally resembles that for the Engineer class, especially in the practical part of it; but chemistry, physics, geology and advanced mathematics are omitted, and the teaching in other subjects is not carried to so high a standard. The system of examination is analogous to that for the Engineer class. A diploma is awarded to successful students on the completion of the practical course. The number of annual admissions is limited to 30. Well-conducted soldiers have hitherto been allowed to compete among themselves for admission. Those who were accepted studied mathematics and a vernacular for a year, and, on passing a further examination, joined the Engineer Subordinate class, and thereafter worked with the civil students. The soldiers were under the command of the Principal; they obtained their pay, rations and clothing from their regiments, resided in barracks at the college, paid no fees, and drew a stipend of Rs. 10 per month. During his final year on works, the soldier became an apprentice overseer, and on absorption into the Public Works Department, he was appointed a first-grade overseer, and was transferred to the unattached list of the army. By a recent order the admission of soldier students has been discontinued. Since 1888 there has been no difficulty in securing a substantial class of Engineer Subordinates. Four or five appointments annually in the Upper Subordinate establishment of the Public Works Department are guaranteed to the class, but more are conferred. This source is also drawn upon by Local Boards, Municipalities and Native States. The demand for qualified men is at present in excess of the supply. A Native Engineer Subordinate commands a salary of from Rs. 40 to Rs. 60 at the outset. (3) *Draftsman class.*—Admission to this class is by selection from candidates who have passed the Lower Secondary or a higher examination. The course occupies two years, and embraces geometrical, free-hand, perspective, and model-drawing, building, topographical and machine-drawing, and estimating. Most of the building and machine-drawing is done from specifications or actual measurements. Annual examinations are held by the Board of Examiners, a proportion of marks being allotted by the college staff. Certificates of three classes are awarded to successful students. The class is popular, and about 30 candidates are accepted annually. There is a large field for employment in the Public Works Department, under Local Boards, in the Railways, and in the miscellaneous offices, public and private, in which draftsmen are utilized. The draftsman can command at the outset Rs. 25 to Rs. 30. Though he has not the education or scientific training of the English draftsman who is capable of drawing up designs, he is not a mere copyist, but is able to transfer drawings from one view to another, and to produce finished plans, from notes and sketches. (4) *Surveyor class.*—The standard of qualification, duration of course, and system of examination are the same as for the Draftsmen class. The course embraces field work with the chain, compass, and plane-table, the level and the theodolite, while the office work includes plotting and topographical drawing. Certificates of qualification in three classes are awarded to successful students. The class fills readily, about 25 candidates being admitted annually. Employment is found in the Public Works Department, the Local Boards, the Madras Survey, the Forest Department, the Railways, and under private employers, but as it is generally of a temporary nature, a larger salary is commanded by the surveyor than by the draftsman. (5) *Artisan class.*—This class was formed for the technical training of young artisans and the sons of artisans. Admission is eagerly sought, and 40 candidates are selected annually. The class is an evening one, and the course, which lasts one year, comprises arithmetic, mensuration, building construction, and elementary plan-drawing and estimating. Morning instruction is also given one day a week in survey field work. No examination is held, but the students can appear for the Government Technical Examinations. The majority of the students are of the petty contractor, maistry, or artisan classes of the community, but a few of them are actually engaged in daily work at the time of attending the college. *General.*—The

total numbers in the college, exclusive of the students on practical courses, have increased during the last five years from 100 to 250. Students make a deposit on admission of from Rs. 50 to Rs. 100, which is drawn against for books and drawing instruments. Stationery and the use of surveying instruments are supplied by the college. Medals and prizes are given for special proficiency. All students go through a course of gymnastics and drill, and they are encouraged to play cricket and lawn tennis. The library, which is freely used, contains about 3,000 volumes, and there is an extensive model room and museum. The college buildings, which are situated on the beach at Chepâk, were considerably added to in 1888, when a drawing office, model-room, chemical laboratory and three lecture rooms were built on to the south end of the old structure. A new workshop was completed in 1893. A calendar is issued annually giving full particulars of the history and administration of the college. The total number of certificates of qualification issued by the institution between 1858 and 1892 has been, Engineers 106, Engineer subordinates 775, draftsmen 758, Surveyors 397.

6. Staff.—The staff consists of a Principal, an Officer of Royal Engineers, in whom is vested the control of the college under the Director of Public Instruction; European Professors of Engineering and Mathematics, an instructor in surveying and drawing, and four assistant instructors; two vernacular assistants; an instructor in carpentry and fitting, and an instructor in gymnastics.

7. Financial.—The tuition fees are Rs. 16 a month for the Engineer class, Rs. 6 for the Engineer Subordinate class, Rs. 4 for the Draftsman and Surveyor classes, and Re. 1 for the Artisan class. The amounts are somewhat reduced if payment is made by the term. Fees are paid by all the civil students without exception. During the practical course no fees are demanded, and throughout the second half of the course the students receive subsistence allowances from the State. The following scholarships are tenable for one year: three in the Engineer class of Rs. 30 per month, viz., one for each batch of students, four in the Engineer Subordinate class of Rs. 12½, two of Rs. 8 in the Draftsman class, and two of Rs. 8 in the Surveyor class. The *Walker* scholarship of about Rs. 13 is tenable for three years and-a-half in the Engineer Subordinate class by a native of a West Coast District. Two University scholarships may be held in the Engineer class. In 1873 the College was transferred from Imperial to Provincial services, and a grant of Rs. 43,040 per annum was made as compensation. Down to 1886 the expenditure was below this figure, but since the re-organization of the College a larger sum has been spent. The average annual total cost of the Institution for the five years ending 1892–93 was Rs. 57,184, and the cost to Government Rs. 47,794.

THE TEACHERS' COLLEGE.

8. The Government Normal school was established in 1856. Its name was changed into that of Teachers' College in 1886. The Teachers' College is open to teachers and persons intending to become teachers, who have passed the Matriculation or some higher examination of the University of Madras, most of the students receiving stipends ranging from Rs. 10 to Rs. 20 per mensem. Graduate students are prepared for the L.T. degree and others for Teachers' certificates of their respective grades. Instruction is also given in Drawing, Book-keeping, Commercial Correspondence and Banking and Political Economy, at the option of the students. The college has also two branch schools attached to it—one for the training of Hindu teachers for the Madras and Chingleput Districts, and the other for Muhammadan teachers for the whole Presidency. Students from Native States are required to pay the following rates of fees for the full course of two terms: for the First-grade collegiate, Rs. 80; Second-grade collegiate, Rs. 60; and Upper secondary, Rs. 40. Licentiates in Teaching who have been trained in the Teachers' College and have served with credit for at least ten years as teachers in recognized schools and colleges are granted by Government the honorary title of 'Associates of the Teachers' College.'

SCHOOL OF ARTS.

9. Description.—This institution was organized in order to afford theoretical and practical instruction in the several branches of the Fine Arts and in some of the leading Art Industries of the country. The school has accordingly been divided into two main branches termed the Artistic and Industrial departments. In the former, drawing, painting, modelling, design and engraving are taught. These subjects are classified and arranged to meet the requirements of artisans, draftsmen, drawing teachers and professional or amateur artists. A nominal fee is charged for instruction in the various branches of these subjects, advanced or figure painting and modelling excepted, for the study of which the fee is considerably higher. In the industrial departments six distinct industries are at present being taught, viz., wood-carving, metal work, pottery manufacture, lacquer work, carpet-weaving and goldsmiths' work. No fee is charged in this section; the students or apprentices, as they are called, receive scholarships as remuneration for the work they do; the amounts of these scholarships are not very high and they vary according to the examinations passed by the student. The maximum is only Rs. 10, and by the time a student has made sufficient progress to be entitled to the full amount, he is generally quite competent to go out and earn at least As. 12 a day. Students who take up the useful branches in the artistic section and complete their course can also invariably find employment either as drawing teachers, draughtsmen, or engravers. The school is, on the whole, a very popular and useful institution; the total number of students in both sections rose from 147 in March 1883 to 489 in March 1893.

EXAMINING BODIES.

10. Board of Examiners.—The present Board consists of a President, who is usually a Member of the Board of Revenue, and a certain number of *ex-officio* and special members. The *ex-officio* members are the Translators to Government and certain officers of the Survey, Settlement and Forest departments, the Chemical Examiner to Government, and the Inspector-General of Police, while the special members are appointed at the pleasure of Government. The Board conducts all the language examinations of the Presidency except the tests in Hindustání for Military officers and the Translation tests of the Special Test examination, and a very large proportion of the departmental examinations in different departments. The examinations in Oriental languages conducted by the Board are held in January and July. Candidates for tests not above the Military higher standard and second-class tests are examined either by the Board at Madras or by district committees, while those for the higher examinations in languages are invariably examined in Madras. The Translators to Government examine unaided for the lower tests, but for the higher tests they have the assistance of a scholar of reputation who receives a fee of Rs. 50, if not in the public service. The examinations conducted by the Board may be arranged as follows:—(*a*) Examination of civilians in the Indian Civil Service in all the prescribed languages, and the examinations according to the first and second standards; (*b*) examinations of officers of the Madras Civil Service in the vernaculars under the rules published in the *Fort St. George Gazette* of the 11th November 1879; (*c*) examination of Deputy Collectors in the vernaculars under the rules published in the *Fort St. George Gazette* of the 7th July 1891, Part I; (*d*) examination of officers of the Educational Department; (*e*) examination of Forest officers in the vernaculars; (*f*) examination of Police officers, Forest officers and Cantonment Magistrates in Law; (*g*) examination of Political officers by a special departmental test; (*h*) examination of all Military officers, including Medical officers and Chaplains in the prescribed languages excepting Hindustání; (*i*) examination in Hindustání of all officers in civil employ; (*j*) examination in special languages, such as Uriya and Khond; (*k*) examination in special cases of candidates for the public service; (*l*) examination of officers under the orders of the Bank of Madras and in Railway employ; (*m*) examination in Hindustání and other languages of officers in civil and military employ beyond the limits of the Presidency.

11. The following are further particulars regarding the above thirteen heads :— (*a*) The Board tests junior civilians on arrival in the vernacular languages studied by them in England, and arranges for a course of two months' training in equitation on their arrival at Madras. In conjunction with district committees it examines assistants of the Indian Civil Service in January and July by the departmental examinations styled the First or lower and the Second or higher standards. The languages for these tests are—for the first standard, the language of the district, and for the second standard, that language and any other vernacular that may be selected including Uriya. In both standards candidates have to pass in Revenue and Law. In 1882 the Civil Account Code was added to the lower standard test. In the same year the Civil Account Code, Revenue Survey and Revenue Settlement, and in 1890, Medical Jurisprudence were added to the higher standard test. The Board also conducts the Higher Standard Examination in Arabic, and the High Proficiency and Honors examinations for civilians in the Indian Civil Service who wish to obtain distinction in languages. The languages for the latter two tests are the four Dravidian vernaculars and Hindustání, Sanskrit, Persian and Arabic. There is no test in Uriya beyond that for High Proficiency, but there is a special test in Uriya for civilians in the Indian Civil Service serving in Ganjám and Vizagapatam, and a colloquial examination in the Khond language, for passing which they get rewards. When a civilian in the Indian Civil Service has passed the High Proficiency Examination, the Board grants a special certificate, and when the Honors examination has been passed, a diploma is given by the Governor in Council. (*b*) The Board also conducts the compulsory and voluntary examinations in the vernaculars for European and Eurasian officers in the Madras Civil Service. These officers are divided into three classes. The first class consists of officers holding appointments usually held by members of the Indian Civil Service. The rules for the examination of these officers are the same as those for members of the Indian Civil Service. The second class consists of subordinate Judges and District Munsifs. These officers have to pass the second-class test, which is compulsory, in the language of the district before entering upon their duties after appointment or within one year thereafter. After passing the compulsory test, these officers can go up for the High Proficiency test in Tamil, Telugu, Canarese and Malayálam, obtaining a reward of Rs. 1,000, if successful. The third class consists of officers in the Police, Jail, Revenue Survey, Revenue Settlement, Public Works and Civil Medical Departments, and certain other officers, viz., Chief Clerks, Presidency Magistrates' Courts, Egmore and Black Town, and officers in all other departments holding corresponding positions to whom a knowledge of a vernacular language is considered necessary for the efficient performance of their duties. These officers are examined in Tamil, Telugu, Canarese and Malayálam by the third-class test, which is compulsory. After passing the third-class test, they are permitted to go up for the second-class test already mentioned. The second-class test is a purely voluntary test for officers in the third class, and for passing it they obtain a reward of Rs. 500, provided that no reward shall be given for passing according to this test in a language which is that of a district in which the candidate was born or educated. Officers of the Salt and Abkári Revenue Department, from Deputy Commissioners down to Assistant Inspectors, whose compulsory examination is conducted departmentally, are also permitted to appear for this examination and obtain a reward of Rs. 500 on their passing. (*c*) Deputy Collectors are examined in any two languages of the Presidency, with this exception that such as are graduates and under-graduates of the Madras University, and have taken up a vernacular as their optional language at their University examination, are not examined in that language except in so far as is necessary to satisfy the Examiner that they can read manuscript fluently and with facility. They are required to qualify at the test within a year from the date of the half-yearly examination next succeeding their appointment. An additional year is allowed to those who have to pass in two languages. (*d*) The Board examines Europeans and Eurasians serving in the Educational Department according to the compulsory test in the vernaculars of the Presidency, Hindustání included; it also examines those not in the graded list down to masters of second-grade colleges and Deputy Inspectors of schools according to the High Proficiency test, and those in the graded list according to the High Proficiency and Honors tests for members of the Indian Civil Service. The High Proficiency

and Honors tests are purely voluntary. (*e*) Conservators, Deputy and Assistant Conservators of the Forest Department are examined by the Board according to the lower and higher standard vernacular tests for Assistant Collectors, Tulu being an additional language in their case. The subordinate officers of the Forest Department, if Europeans or Eurasians, are examined by the third-class test for officers of the Madras Civil Service. (*f*) In conjunction with district committees, the Board examines in Law Police officers down to the grade of Assistant Superintendents and gentlemen Inspectors as also Forest officers and Cantonment Magistrates. (*g*) Political Officers are similarly examined according to a special departmental test laid down in 1883. (*h*) Commissioned Military, warrant and non-commissioned officers and privates, Medical commissioned officers, Chaplains and Military Medical subordinates are examined by the Board in the various languages named in the Army Regulations except in Hindustání, the examinations in which are conducted by the Examiner in Hindustání. These are all examinations for rewards. (*i*) Military and other officers in civil employ are examined in Hindustání according to the lower and higher tests in addition to officers of the Postal, Telegraph, Topographical Survey, Trigonometrical Survey, Geological Survey, Marine Survey and Accounts and Paper Currency departments whose examinations, however, whether in Hindustání or a vernacular language by the higher standard, are made special cases. Medical officers who are District and Civil Surgeons are also examined in Tamil, Telugu, Canarese. Malayálam and Uriya by two tests, the colloquial and the higher standard, the latter being the Military higher standard test. (*j*) The Board also arranges for the examination of Military officers in civil employ and officers of the Engineering and Police establishments, when serving in the Ganjám or Vizagapatam district, in Uriya, and of European and native officials serving in any district, in the Khond language. (*k*) Persons, who are desirous of entering certain departments, are examined under the special orders of Government in the vernacular tests applicable to those departments. (*l*) Railway officers are examined in Tamil and Telugu by a special test which is equal to the third-class test for officers of the Madras Civil Service, and also by the higher and lower tests in these languages, and Agents and Accountants of the Madras Bank are examined in the language of their districts, or in Hindustání, according to a colloquial test which is called the Bank test. (*m*) The Board also arranges with Military examining committees beyond the limits of the Presidency for the examination in Hindustání and other languages of officers in civil and military employ.

12. Military Examining Committees for Languages.—The examinations conducted in this presidency under the immediate control of military authorities (except those of a purely military nature which Commissioned Officers are required to pass for promotion to higher rank) are styled, respectively, the 'Lower Standard,' the 'Higher Standard,' and the 'High Proficiency Test in Urdu,' and are limited to the Hindustání and Persian languages. The *vivâ voce* portion of the Lower and Higher Standard tests in Hindustání are conducted at up-country stations by committees of qualified military officers appointed by the Officer Commanding the station; the former examination is held quarterly on the first Monday in January (not being New Year's Day), April, July, and October; the latter according to the following extract from para. 2690, Revised Section XXIV, Army Regulations, India, Volume II:—"At outstations, examinations will be conducted by committees "consisting of one officer who has passed the High Proficiency Test, or three officers "who have passed at least the Higher Standard Test, and will be held quarterly on "the 20th and 21st of January, April, July and October, except when either of these "dates falls on a Sunday or Thursday, the weekly garrison holiday, when the "following Monday or Friday, respectively, will be substituted. Test papers will be "forwarded to the Officers Commanding stations by the Examiner in Hindustání, to "whom Presidents will forward examination papers direct for final disposal." The examinations for the Lower and Higher Standards in Hindustání are held on the first Monday in each month (not being the first day of the year), and that for the High Proficiency in Hindustání (Urdu) and Honors quarterly on the first Monday in January (not being New Year's Day), April, July and October in each year, by the Examiner in Hindustání at the court-martial room, Fort St. George. The rewards are Rs. 180 for the Lower Standard, Rs. 180 for the Higher Standard, Rs. 1,000 for

the High Proficiency in Urdu, and Rs. 2,000 for passing the Honor Test in Hindustání. The Lower and Higher Standard tests in Hindustání are obligatory on an officer who seeks admission into the Indian Army and for certain staff appointments. The object of the other test is to encourage the study of oriental languages.

13. COMMISSIONER FOR THE UNCOVENANTED CIVIL SERVICE EXAMINATIONS.—The Commissionership for the Uncovenanted Civil Service Examinations, instituted in 1860, was at first entrusted to the Director of Public Instruction. It was subsequently held for many years by a member of the Board of Revenue, but since 1880 it has continued to be in the hands of the Director of Public Instruction. The correspondence of the Commissioner is carried on by a Secretary. The Examiners for the several examinations under his control are appointed by the Commissioner and are paid out of the fees realized from the candidates. Most of the examinations prescribed for entry into the various departments of the public service, are conducted by the Commissioner, besides others for the promotion of general and technical education. The following is a list of the examinations at present under his control :—(1) The Primary School Examination, (2) The Lower Secondary Examination, (3) The Upper Secondary Examination, (4) The Government Technical Examinations, (5) An Examination of Matriculated Candidates in Hand-writing, (6) An Examination of Candidates for the grade of Civil Medical Pupil, (7) An Examination of Candidates for the grade of Native Military Pupil, (8) An Examination of Candidates for the Warrant Branch of the Medical Department, (9) An Examination of Candidates for the selection of Burma Medical Pupils, (10) The Sub-Assistant Inspectors' Tests, (11) The Special Test Examinations, Judicial and Revenue, (12) The Special Test for Police Officers, (13) The Special Tests for Officers of the Salt and Abkári Department, (14) The Salt and Abkári Department Competitive Examination. All the above examinations are held at a very large number of centres in the Presidency, and in the Native States of Mysore, Travancore and Haidarábád under certain conditions.

14. The following are further particulars in regard to some of the examinations :—(*a*) The Upper Secondary Examination was instituted in 1889 for the purpose of encouraging technical education, of improving its character and widening its scope. It serves also as a general education test for admission to 'superior' appointments in the public service. Under Notification No. 47 of the 20th June 1889, regulating this examination, candidates are required to pass in four compulsory subjects (1. English, 2. Second Language, 3. Mathematics, 4. History and Geography) and in three optional subjects, the examination in the latter being conducted under the Notification regulating the Government Technical Examinations. (*b*) The Primary School Examination was sanctioned in G.O., No. 17, of the 15th January 1889, its object being to encourage Primary education and to test the fitness of candidates for 'inferior' service under Government. The examination, which is of a very elementary standard, is a *vivâ voce* one and is conducted in the vernacular language of the candidates. The subjects of the examination are :—(1) Compulsory : (i) Reading, Recitation and Grammar, (ii) Writing and Spelling and (iii) Arithmetic. (2) Optional, any two of the following subjects : Elementary Science, Second Language, Geography, Drawing, Hygiene, History of India, Agriculture, Mensuration, Needle-work. When this examination was instituted, the Upper Primary and the Special Primary Examinations were abolished, as being no longer necessary. (*c*) On the institution of the Upper Secondary Examination, it was considered advisable to do away with the Middle School Examination, which had been in existence from 1880 to 1890. The Lower Secondary Examination was then instituted in place of the latter, but unlike the Middle School Examination, it qualifies only for admission to 'inferior service,' like the Primary School Examination, and is intended mainly to serve the limited purpose of a leaving test for Lower Secondary schools. The examination is now regulated by Notification No. 43 of the 22nd May 1893, and embraces the following subjects :—Compulsory : 1. First Language, 2. Arithmetic, 3. Geography, 4. History of India ; and Optional : 1. Elementary Science, 2. Second Language, 3. Needle-work, 4. History of Great Britain and Ireland, 5. Domestic Economy, 6. Geometry and Algebra, 7. Any of the subjects of the Elementary Technical Examinations. Candidates are required to pass in only two of the optional subjects to complete the test. (*d*) The Govern-

ment Technical Examinations, formerly known as the Government Examinations in Science, Art, Industries and Commerce, were first instituted in 1886, but since then have several times undergone revision. They are now regulated by Notification No. 18 of the 25th January 1893, their object being to encourage scientific and technical instruction, with special reference to manufactures and industries, and generally to the necessities of the practical side of life. They are in three grades—Elementary, Intermediate and Advanced, and embrace as many as eighty-five subjects. The subjects of the Elementary Examinations are recognized as optional subjects of the Lower Secondary Examination, and the subjects of the Intermediate Examinations as optional subjects of the Upper Secondary Examination. (*e*) The Sub-Assistant Inspectors' Tests, instituted in 1887, are intended to regulate the first appointment and subsequent promotion of Sub-Assistant Inspectors and Sub-Assistant Inspectresses of Schools. The tests are grouped under two heads—Test A. Linguistic, and Test B. Office, Administration, and Inspection; the latter, Test B, embracing four separate branches. Candidates are not required to come up for Tests A and B at the same time, or to appear in more than two of the branches of Test B at the same examination. (*f*) The Special Test Examinations [1] were instituted for the purpose of testing the fitness of candidates for particular situations demanding special qualifications, and the first examination of this nature was held in March 1863 in subjects relating to the Judicial and Magisterial Departments. The Revenue Tests came into force in 1864. The original rules bear date the 4th February and 30th May 1862; later on these were revised, and the rules were again superseded by those published under date the 29th July 1869. The latter remain in force with certain slight alterations. The Civil Judicial Test,

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[1] List of Existing Special Tests.—(1) Judicial Test, Civil, Higher Grade, called I-A—abolished. (2) Judicial Test, Civil, Lower Grade, called I-B—Offices: Sheristadar in the High Court (Appellate Side), District Courts, Subordinate Judges' Courts; Chief Clerk or Manager, Egmore Police Court; Head Clerk in District Courts and Subordinate Judges' Courts. (3) Judicial Test, Criminal, Higher Grade, called II-A—Offices: Subordinate Judge; District Munsif; Deputy Collector and Magistrate; Subordinate Magistrate of the first class; Chief Clerk or Manager, Egmore Police Court. (4) Judicial Test, Criminal, Lower Grade, called II-B—Offices: Tahsildar and Second-class Sub-Magistrate; Taluk Sheristadar and Second-class Sub-Magistrate; Second-class Sub-Magistrate and Deputy Tahsildar; Second and Third-class Sub-Magistrates; Sheristadar in the High Court (Appellate Side), District Courts, and Subordinate Judges' Courts; Police Inspector; Head Clerk in District Courts. (5) Revenue Test, General, Higher Grade, called III-A—Offices: Deputy Collector and Magistrate; Uncovenanted Assistant in the office of the Board of Revenue; Sheristadar to the Board of Revenue. (6) Revenue Test, General, Lower Grade, called III-B—Offices: Huzur Sheristadar; Second-class Sub-Magistrate; Tahsildar and Deputy Tahsildar; Taluk Sheristadar; Sub-Collector's Sheristadar and Head Clerk; Head Assistant's Head Clerk; Abkári Superintendent and Deputy Superintendent, Madras; Revenue Inspectors. (7) Revenue Test, Salt and Abkári Departments, called IV, for officers of the Salt and Abkári Department. (8) Revenue Test, Sea Customs Department, called V—Offices: Superintendent of Sea Customs; Assistant Superintendent of Sea Customs, when the salary of the office amounts to Rs. 50 per mensem or more. (9) Account Test, called VI—Offices: Accountant in the Board's office; Accountant in the English department of Collectors' offices drawing salaries of Rs. 50 and upwards; Accountant, Marine office; Accountant in the Sea Customs office; Accountant in the office of Conservator of Forests. (10) Translation Test, Higher Grade, called VII-A—Offices: Translators and Interpreters in the High Court and District Courts; Interpreters in the Court of Small Causes, Madras, office of the Commissioner of Police, and Police Courts. (11) Translation Test, Lower Grade, called VII-B—Offices: Subordinate Judge; District Munsif; Deputy Collector and Magistrate; Translators in offices of Government, Board of Revenue, office of the Director of Revenue Settlement, and Collectors' offices; English Record-keeper in Collectors' offices; Sub-Collector's Sheristadar; Head Assistant's Head Clerk; Head Clerks, District and Sessions Courts, and Subordinate Judges' Courts; Head Clerks, Small Cause Courts; Head Clerks in Police Courts and Assistant Head Clerk, Egmore Police Court; all the other offices designated under I-B, II-A, II-B, III-A, III-B, and V, and Registrar, Deputy Registrar, Examiner, Record-keeper, or clerk in the Correspondence department of any Court other than the High Court drawing salaries of Rs. 50 and upwards; Revenue Inspectors. (12) Précis-writing, Higher Grade, called VIII-A—Offices: General—First, Second, and Third Assistants, Registrar, Record-keeper, Head Examiner in the Press Department, Deputy Registrar, Indexer, Examiner, Head Clerk of the Reference Branch, Head Clerk of the Petition Department, and Head Clerk of the Pension Department in the Government Office. Judicial—Subordinate Judge; District Munsif; Sheristadar, Manager, Record-keeper, Examiner of Correspondence and Indexer of the High Court, Appellate Side; Sheristadar in District and Sessions Courts and Subordinate Judges' Courts; Head Clerks in District and Sessions Court and Subordinate Judges' Court; Manager, Record-keeper and Examiner, Madras Small Cause Court; Head Clerk in Small Cause Courts; Examiner and Recordkeeper in all the Courts; Book-keepers and Head Auditor in the office of the Inspector-General of Police; Manager in the office of the Commissioner of Police; Manager, Egmore Police Court, Madras; Record-keepers in the Police Courts, Presidency; Manager, Government Agency, Vizagapatam; Manager and Record-keeper in the office of the Chepák Agent and Paymaster of Carnatic Stipends; all clerks drawing a salary of Rs. 80 and upwards per mensem. Revenue—Head Sheristadar, Uncovenanted Assistants, Registrar, Deputy Registrar, Local Fund Manager, Manager of the Forest Department, First, Second, Third and Fourth Accountants, Record-keeper, Indexer, Head Translator, and Head Accountant in the Local Fund department in the office of the Board of Revenue; Manager, Indexer, Examiner and Record-keepers in the office of the Director of Revenue Settlement; Deputy Collector and Magistrate; Huzur Sheristadar; Sub-Collector's Sheristadar; Tahsildar; Taluk Sheristadar; Sub-Magistrates; Abkári Superintendent, Madras; Manager and Accountants drawing salaries of Rs. 80 per mensem and upwards in the Sea Customs office, Madras; Accountant, English department, Collector's office; English Record-keeper in Collector's office; Accountants in the Stamp office, Madras, and Forest Conservancy department drawing salaries of Rs. 80 per mensem and upwards. Miscellaneous—Superintendents and Accountants drawing salaries of Rs. 80 and upwards per mensem in the Accountant-General's office; Manager, office of the Commissioner for the U.C.S. Examinations; Manager, office of the Director of Public Instruction; Manager, Examiner, Deputy Examiner, Record-keeper and Accountants drawing Rs. 80 and upwards in the Marine office, Madras. (13) Précis-writing, Lower Grade, called VIII-B—The offices for which this test is prescribed are the same as those under VIII-A— Precis-writing, Higher Grade. (14) Police Test, called IX (the same as Judicial Test—Criminal, Lower Grade, called II-B)—Offices: Police Inspectors. (15) Jail Department Test, called X—Offices: Jailor; Deputy Jailor.

Higher grade, has been abolished, the Pleaders' Test Examination, conducted by the High Court, being recognized in place of it as a qualifying test for the appointments of Subordinate Judge and District Munsif. Medical Jurisprudence has been added to the subjects of the Criminal Judicial Tests, and a new test, called the Jail Department Test, has been added to the list of Special Tests. Subject to certain restrictions, under the rules now in force, the Special Tests are open to (1) candidates who have passed the Degree Examination of any University in the British Empire, (2) candidates who have passed the First Examination in Arts of the Madras University, (3) candidates who have passed the Matriculation Examination of the Madras University, (4) candidates who have passed the Upper Secondary Examination, and (5) candidates who have passed the Matriculation Examination of the London University. The Special Tests now include the tests for the Salt and Abkári Department. There are six of these tests: Test A—Criminal Law, Test B—Salt, Test C—Accounts, Test D—Engineering, Test E—Linguistic, Test F—Abkári; of these, Test E is conducted separately under the orders of the Commissioner of Salt, Abkári and Separate Revenue. The Higher grades of the Salt and Abkári Tests qualify for the post of Inspector, the lower for the post of Assistant Inspector in the Department. The result of the Special Test Examinations in declaring candidates eligible for particular offices is as shown below.[2] (*g*) In June 1892, a new examination was instituted styled the 'Salt and Abkári Department Competitive Examination' for the purpose of selecting candidates for the higher grades of the Subordinate Branch of the Salt and Abkári Department. The Examination is open to such candidates only as may be selected to compete for it by the Commissioner of Salt, Abkári and Separate Revenue, provided they satisfy certain conditions. These conditions are prescribed in Notification No. 70 of the 2nd June 1892. The standard of the examination is nearly as high as that of the Arts Degree Examination of the Madras University. Successful candidates in this examination, if they have satisfied the Commissioner as to their ability to ride, are entitled to appointments as Assistant Inspectors and as clerks on salaries of Rs. 100 and upwards, as vacancies occur.

15. Other examining bodies.—Particulars of other examining bodies can best be seen by the list of Miscellaneous tests given below.[3]

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[2] Number of Candidates passed to date for Special Tests answering to certain appointments.

1. District Munsifs and Subordinate Judges ...	886	12. Accountants, Stamp office	337
2. Court Sheristadars	436	13. Translators, High Court and District and Sessions Courts	700
3. Deputy Collectors and Magistrates	860	14. Interpreters, Court of Small Causes, Madras, office of the Commissioner of Police, and Police Courts	406
4. Nazirs in District and Sessions Courts and Sub-Judges' Courts	141	15. Translators, offices of Government, Revenue Board, Revenue Settlement office, and Collectors' offices	7,475
5. Sub-Magistrates, first class	1,351	16. Chief Clerk or Manager, Egmore Police Court...	138
6. Uncovenanted Assistants and Sheristadars of the Board of Revenue	544	17. Head Clerks, Police Courts, Assistant Head Clerk, Egmore Police Court, English Record-keepers, Collectors' offices, Head writers, District and Sessions Courts and Sub-Judges' Courts and Head Clerks, Small Cause Courts ...	3,123
7. Superintendents of Sea Customs	190	18. Appointments in Public offices for which Précis-writing alone is prescribed as a test	6,574
8. Huzur Sheristadars	851		
9. Tahsildars and Second-class Sub-Magistrates, Taluk Sheristadars, Deputy Tahsildars, &c. ...	1,577		
10. Sub-Collector's Sheristadars and Head Assistant's Head Clerks	1,010		
11. Accountants in the English department of Collectors' offices drawing a salary of Rs. 30 and upwards, Accountants in the Board's office, Sea-Customs office, and office of the Conservator of Forests	411		

[3] Miscellaneous Examination Tests.—(1) *Civil Engineering*—Examinations conducted by a separate Board of Examiners attached to the Civil Engineering College or by the Principal of that College:—(*a*) Examination for Diploma as Assistant Engineer, Public Works Department. This examination is held annually in December, and the test comprises Mathematics, Engineering, Surveying, Levelling, Drawing and Estimating. (*b*) Examination for Diploma as Supervisor or Overseer, Public Works Department. This examination is held in the month of May, and the subjects are the same as those for the preceding test, but the knowledge required for this examination is of a more elementary nature. The candidates are also tested as to their ability in conversing and writing easy sentences in Tamil or Telugu on topics connected with the Public Works Department. (*c*) Examination for certificate as Draftsman and Estimator. (*d*) Examination for certificate as Surveyor. These examinations are held in the month of May, and the tests comprise 'Surveying and Levelling,' 'Drawing and Estimating.' No person can be employed as a draftsman in the Public Service, unless he holds a certificate from the Civil Engineering College. (*e*) Examination for admission to the second and Special Departments of the Civil Engineering College. This examination is held in April at the Civil Engineering College and at the Public Works Department head-quarters, at which the candidates present themselves. In the case of military candidates, the examination is also held at the head-quarters of their Regiments. The test comprises the English language, English Dictation, and Arithmetic. (*f*) Examination for admission to the Accounts Branch, Public Works Department. This is held biennially in March and September at the Civil Engineering College and at those Public Works Department stations at which superior officers' consent, at the request of candidates, to supervise the examination. The test comprises Arithmetic, English Dictation and Hand-writing. (*g*) Examination in Tamil or Telugu of military probationers for the second

PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

16. CONSTITUTION OF THE EDUCATIONAL DEPARTMENT.—The Government Department of Instruction is administered by a Director, assisted by four Inspectors, each in charge of an educational circle, and by two Inspectresses. The charges of the several Inspectors are shown below.[4] One Inspectress has charge of all girls' schools in the northern and central circles and the other Inspectress, of those in the southern and western circles. Intermediate between the Inspectors and the Sub-Assistant (formerly Deputy) Inspectors, a new class of inspecting officers styled 'Assistant Inspectors,' on salaries ranging from Rs. 200 to Rs. 500 a month, was sanctioned with effect from 20th December 1888. Nine such officers were appointed, the jurisdiction of each officer being known as a Division. Details are given below.[4] In Malabar and South Canara, which form the western circle, there is no Assistant Inspector. The vernacular language of the first division is chiefly Telugu; of the second, third and fifth almost exclusively Telugu; of the fourth about equally divided between Telugu and Tamil; of the sixth, seventh, eighth and ninth chiefly Tamil; of Malabar, Malayálam, and of South Canara, Canarese. Three of the Sub-Assistant Inspectors have exclusive charge of Muhammadan schools in the northern, central and southern circles respectively, and one has charge of Máppilla schools in Malabar. The Sub-Assistant Inspectors are divided into four classes as follows:—Eight first class, Rs. 150 each; 13 second class,

department, Civil Engineering College. This is held annually in July at the head-quarters of the 'Q.O.' Sappers and Miners, Bangalore. The subjects are translation from English into Vernacular and *vice versâ* and writing idiomatic sentences. (2) *Medical*—(*a*) Candidates for the grade of Apothecary appear before a Board of Medical officers appointed by Government and undergo two tests—one called the Primary Examination and the other the Final or Pass Examination. The examinations are held about the middle of June. (*b*) Candidates for the Hospital Assistant grade are examined by the same Board. (3) *Pleadership Examination.*—This examination was instituted in 1879 for the purpose of ascertaining the qualifications of persons desirous of becoming pleaders in Courts subordinate to the High Court. The Standing Examination Board consists of a Judge of the High Court, the Advocate-General, the Government Pleader, the Principal of the Law College, Madras, and the Deputy Registrar of the High Court, Appellate Side, as Member and Secretary. The examination is held annually at any time during the months of January and February at 11 centres. The High Court prescribes from time to time various subjects of examination and determines the general qualifications and the standard of proficiency required for each grade of certificates. The examiners are appointed annually by Government on the recommendation of the High Court. (4) *Teachers' Certificate Examinations.*—Details of these examinations will be found in foot-note [6]. The examinations are conducted by a Board appointed by Government on the recommendation of the Director of Public Instruction for a period of three years, and consists of a President and not less than four members.

[4] TABLE SHOWING THE JURISDICTION OF THE INSPECTING OFFICERS.

Circles.	Divisions.	Districts.	Area of Districts in square miles.	Population of districts.	Number of Sub-Assistants.	Number of Inspecting School-masters.	Number of Superintendents of Hill schools.
Northern.	First ...	Ganjám	8,370	1,896,803	3	11	2
		Vizagapatam	17,242	2,802,992	2	12	2
	Second ...	Gódávari	7,857	2,078,782	3	14	2
	Third ...	Kistna	8,397	1,855,582	3	17	...
		Kurnool	7,514	817,811	2	7	...
Central.	Fourth ...	Nellore	8,765	1,463,736	2	10	...
		Chingleput	2,842	1,136,928	2	8	...
		Madras	29	452,518	1	3	...
	Fifth ...	Bellary	5,975	900,126	2	9	...
		Anantapur	5,275	708,549	2	4	...
		Cuddapah	8,722	1,272,072	2	8	...
	Sixth ...	North Arcot	7,616	2,180,487	3	14	...
		South Arcot	5,217	2,162,851	3	10	...
Southern.	Seventh ...	Nílgiris	957	99,797	...	1	...
		Salem	7,529	1,962,591	3	13	...
		Coimbatore	7,860	2,004,839	3	11	...
	Eighth ...	Tanjore	3,709	2,228,114	3	15	...
		Trichinopoly	3,631	1,372,717	2	9	...
	Ninth ...	Madura	8,808	2,608,404	3	14	...
		Tinnevelly	5,387	1,916,095	3	14	...
Western.	Western Circle.	Malabar	5,585	2,652,565	2	22	...
		South Canara	3,902	1,056,081	2	7	...
		Sub-Assistants of Girls' schools	...	...	5	...	...
		Sub-Assistants of Muhammadan and Máppilla schools	...	...	4	...	...
		Total ...	141,189	35,630,440	60	* 232	6

* Includes 16 inspecting schoolmasters of Muhammadan schools.

Rs. 125 each; 27 third class, Rs. 100 each; and 13 probationers on Rs. 75 each. The territorial jurisdiction of the Sub-Assistant Inspectors varies widely; each Sub-Assistant has on an average 250 schools to inspect and examine annually. For the organization and periodical supervision of elementary schools there is a subordinate inspecting agency denominated Inspecting schoolmasters. Some of the municipal Inspecting school-masters are designated Supervisors of municipal schools. Foot-note No. [4] shows their distribution in 1892–93. There are, besides, six officers almost of the same standing, styled Superintendents of Hill schools, employed in the Ganjám, Vizagapatam and Gódávari agency tracts. These officers are under the immediate orders of the Government Agents.

17. Fifteen superior officers of the Department, including the Inspectors of Schools, the Principals of the Presidency, Kumbakónam and Rajahmundry Colleges, and the Professors of the Presidency College and College of Engineering are graded in classes, their salaries rising by annual increments from the minimum to the maximum prescribed for their class. The Principal and Professors of the Medical College, who belong to the Indian Medical Department, and the Principal of the College of Engineering, who is an officer of Royal Engineers, are subject to special regulations. The principle of giving salaries rising by increments has been sanctioned in the case of the teachers employed in all Government institutions, with a few exceptions. Although the Medical College is under the control of the Director of Public Instruction, no charges connected with this institution fall on the educational budget. The salaries of the Principal and major Professors, who are all officers holding various medical appointments, and the stipends of the Military Hospital apprentices appertain to Imperial services. The salaries of the minor Professors and all the other items belong to the Medical branch of Provincial services.

18. There are no Acts in force regulating the working of the Department. The District Boards Act of 1884 contains, among other subjects, provision for the encouragement of elementary education in non-municipal areas, whilst the City of Madras Municipal Act and the District Municipalities Act provide for the regulation of education in municipalities. The lower secondary education of boys in the mufassal municipalities was transferred to these bodies from 1st April 1883 on the recommendation of the Local Self-Government Committee. The Grant-in-aid Code contains rules regarding the nature and amount of aid to be given to private schools. It is proposed that at the beginning of each calendar year, according to the English practice, a revised edition of the code be published in the Fort St. George Gazette.

19. *Inspecting Officers.*—The Inspectors of the Department exercise a disciplinary control over all subordinates, that is to say, all educational employés in their circles, excepting professors, lecturers and teachers in Government Colleges, general and professional, and in the Madrasa-i-Azam, whether those subordinates are paid from Provincial or Local Funds. Except with reference to Provincial servants drawing Rs. 30 and under they possess no patronage; as regards Provincial servants the appointments rest with the Director, and as regards Local Fund Board and Municipal servants with the Presidents of the Local Boards or Chairmen of the Municipal Councils. The practice, however, is for the Presidents to allow to the Inspector very considerable power regarding the employment and dismissal of their educational servants. Inspectors supervise the work of the Assistant Inspectors and of the Sub-Assistants generally. The Assistant Inspectors supervise their Sub-Assistants in the control or inspection of primary schools in their ranges and in the management of Inspecting Schoolmasters. They have also the general care of all matters connected with education in their divisions, more especially such as come before them in their capacity of advisers of District Boards and Municipal Councils. The Sub-Assistant Inspectors' chief duties are connected with the control, examination, and inspection of the primary schools in their ranges. They are immediately responsible for the work of the Inspecting Schoolmasters and of the masters of elementary schools. The work devolving on Inspecting Schoolmasters is the improvement of the elementary schools throughout the country, by visiting and instructing the teachers and in a measure the scholars of such schools; also by inducing them to bring their schools under Government inspection and to conform to the rules regarding the subjects to be taught and the method of teaching.

20. The system of inspection in force is as follows:—In second-grade colleges, the examination of the College department is confined to testing the classes in English reading, recitation, composition and writing, and to an inspection of note-books and home exercises. In secondary schools, the examination of the Sixth Form is confined to the subjects not tested by the Matriculation or the Upper Secondary Examination. The examination of the Fifth and Fourth Forms embraces between the two Forms all the leading subjects taught. Similarly, with regard to the examination of Lower Secondary Forms, if the school sends up its pupils to the Lower Secondary Examination, the Third Form is examined only in the subjects not tested by that examination. In Primary schools, the examination embraces all the subjects of instruction. In Training and Special institutions, the examination is as thorough as possible both on the theoretical and on the practical side. The progress made by pupils in drill, gymnastics, calisthenics, or other physical exercises is tested in as many classes and forms as the Inspecting officer may consider necessary to enable him to judge of the efficiency of the instruction throughout the school. Although in all schools under inspection an Inspector, or his Assistant, may claim entry when he pleases during school hours for inspection purposes, yet it is usual to give notice some time beforehand of the proposed date of inspection. In regard to elementary schools the inspections by the Inspecting Schoolmasters are intended to be frequent, in order that schoolmasters may receive assistance in adapting their teaching to the authorized standards and methods. As regards 'schools not under inspection,' no formal inspection is made of the larger institutions; but it is the practice to visit such schools should the managers desire it, and aid them by advice. No reports of such visits are recorded.

21. THE UNIVERSITY OF MADRAS.—The University of Madras is constituted on the model of the University of London in all respects, and is purely an examining body conferring degrees in Arts (including Teaching), Law, Medicine and Engineering. The Senate, which consists of a Chancellor, a Vice-Chancellor, and not less than thirty Fellows, is divided into the four Faculties just mentioned, and has power, subject to the approval of Government, to make bye-laws and regulations. The executive government of the University is vested in a Syndicate, consisting of the Vice-Chancellor and eight of the Fellows, five of them representing the Faculty of Arts and one each of the remaining faculties. This body appoints examiners, regulates examinations, keeps the accounts and carries on the correspondence of the University, with the aid of a Registrar, who is an officer appointed once in five years by the Senate on a salary of Rs. 600 rising to Rs. 800, by annual increments of Rs. 50 per mensem. The bye-law provides also for the appointment of an Assistant Registrar. There are also separate Boards of Studies, one for each of the several branches of learning, each board consisting of between three and nine members, selected by the Syndicate from among the Fellows and holding office for three years. The Boards are empowered to submit for consideration of the Syndicate nominations of Examiners and Assistant Examiners in their respective branches; to recommend the text-books from year to year; to consult specialists who are not Fellows of the University; and to consider and report on all matters referred to them by the Syndicate. Heads of affiliated colleges and Fellows of the University are competent to recommend candidates as Examiners. The Boards of Studies nominate them and the Syndicate finally sanctions their appointment. There is no limit of age for any of the University examinations. In the Faculty of Arts there are five examinations: the Matriculation, First Arts, B.A., M.A., and the L.T. examinations. In the Faculty of Laws examinations are held for the degrees of Bachelor of Laws and Master of Laws. The Faculty of Medicine has the degrees of Licentiate in Medicine and Surgery, Bachelor of Medicine and Master in Surgery, and the examination for the Degree of Licentiate in Sanitary Science. Candidates who have obtained the degrees of B.A. and M.B. and C.M. are permitted to proceed to the degree of M.D. without examination on producing a certificate of having been engaged two years in the practice of their profession. But candidates who hold only the degree of M.B. and C.M. are required to produce a certificate of three years' practice of their profession before they are admitted to the degree. Previous to the institution of the University, medical diplomas were conferred by the Medical College. The only examination in the Faculty of

Engineering is that for the degree of Bachelor of Civil Engineering. Under the revised bye-laws which will come into effect from 1894-95, there will be two examinations in Engineering—the First Examination in Engineering and the Examination for the Degree of Bachelor of Engineering. The following table shows the number of degrees conferred since the establishment of the University down to the end of 1892 :—

Degrees.	Passed examination for degree.	Graduated.	Graduates deceased.	Graduates on the rolls on the 31st March 1892.
Bachelors of Arts	* 3,067	2,841	162	2,679
Masters of Arts	73	68	12	56
Bachelors of Laws	493	486	58	428
Masters of Laws	10	10	3	7
Licentiates in Medicine and Surgery	117	88	4	84
Bachelors of Medicine and Masters in Surgery	† 21	18	4	14
Doctors of Medicine	5	5	2	3
Bachelors of Civil Engineering	65	54	1	53
Licentiates in Teaching	31	20	1	19

Fees ranging from Rs. 12 to Rs. 100 are levied for the various examinations under the University ; and these cover the whole cost of the University and leave a surplus, the balance in favour of the University on the 1st April 1893 having amounted to nearly Rs. 2,50,000. The following tabular statement furnishes information in regard to the results of the Matriculation, F.A. and B.A. examinations :—

Year.	B.A. Examination.		F.A. Examination.		Matriculation.	
	Passed.	Presented.	Passed.	Presented.	Passed.	Presented.
1883	159	334	501	1,110	1,739	5,290
1884	169	354	368	1,011	1,603	5,215
1885	163	474	456	1,354	1,895	5,805
1886	367	534	570	1,576	2,165	6,378
1887	236	479	516	1,745	1,963	6,582
1888	318	568	510	1,979	1,854	7,327
1889	300	524	359	2,013	1,611	7,104
1890	359	548	668	2,052	1,648	7,002
1891	230	457	740	2,016	2,381	7,907
1892	510	658	779	18,89	520	3,369

Up to 31st March 1893, 56 graduates had obtained the degree of Master of Arts, no less than 32 of them being Bráhmans, and only one a Muhammadan. Similarly of 7 Masters of Laws, 4 were Bráhmans and of 428 Bachelors of Laws, 312 were Bráhmans, and only 3 Muhammadans. Out of a total of 2,679 Bachelors of Arts, 1,836 were Bráhmans and 20 Muhammadans. Again among 53 Bachelors of Engineering, 37 were Bráhmans, and there was not a single Muhammadan ; also, of 19 Licentiates in Teaching, 15 were Bráhmans.

* One of these died without receiving the degree. † Two of these died without receiving the degree.

22. DESCRIPTION OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS ACCORDING TO TEACHING.—The description of educational institutions according to the nature and standard of instruction as sketched in the Madras Educational Rules is given in foot-note.[5] A student proceeding through the whole educational course in a public institution for general education (say, during fourteen years, one year for each class or form) has to pass through all the classes and institutions specified. Few institutions, however, contain all the classes and forms enumerated in the foot-note. On the other hand, it is not unusual for an institution to be divided into branches representing different parts of the scheme, all being in the same building or under the same management: thus, almost all the Arts Colleges have one or more schools attached to them, and most high or middle schools have one or more primary classes, working under the same roof or under the same management, as feeders to the higher institutions. Each class or form has its own course of instruction. No restrictions are placed in respect of class-promotions, this being determined by the heads of schools themselves on the results of the annual or periodical examinations. A student is not, however, allowed to enter on a University course unless he has passed the Matriculation Examination, or to enter on the B.A. course unless he has passed the First Examination in Arts. Colleges for professional education have each their own status and have been treated separately.

23. The collegiate stage of general instruction extends over four years, the course in the F.A. classes occupying two years and that in the B.A. classes occupying another two years. But under the new bye-laws of the University, a candidate is permitted to appear for the three divisions of the B.A. Degree examination at the same or at different examinations. This concession has the effect of virtually extending the B.A. course over three years. The curricula consist in preparation for the B.A. and F.A. tests. There is no special departmental

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[5] DESCRIPTION OF EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS.—A Select Committee was appointed by Government in 1889 to revise the Standing Orders of the Educational Department and to frame rules for the recognition of public institutions. A set of rules, designated 'The Madras Educational Rules,' was elaborated by the committee. These rules as well as the special sections subsequently drawn up by the Director of Public Instruction in respect of Government institutions, Training schools and Teachers' Certificates Examinations were approved by Government in 1891. The arrangement laid down by the Government of India in regard to the classification of educational institutions has been followed in the Educational Rules, but the number and the names of the classes in each grade of school or college was revised. The following extracts relate to the classification of educational institutions :—

- (a) Public institutions
  - i. Under public management ...
    - Managed by Government.
    - Managed by Local and Municipal Boards.
  - ii. Under private management.
    - Aided by Government or by Local or Municipal Boards.
    - Unaided.
- Private institutions
  - i. Advanced—teaching Arabic, Persian or Sanskrit.
  - ii. Elementary—teaching Vernacular only or mainly.
  - iii. Elementary—teaching the Quran.
  - iv. Other schools not conforming to departmental standards.

["Public institutions include not only Government, Board or Municipal schools which are wholly supported at the expense of public funds, but also any schools which receive aid in any form from the State, even when that aid is confined to the benefits of inspection and supervision, as well as those which regularly send their pupils to the examinations held by the Department. All indigenous schools which have not accepted the departmental standards of instruction, and all others in which the course of instruction, however advanced, does not conform to the standards prescribed or accepted by the Department or the University and which submit to no public test are private institutions."]

- (b) University education.
  - Arts ...
    - First-grade Colleges.
    - Second-grade Colleges.
  - Professional.
    - Colleges of Law.
    - Colleges of Medicine.
    - Colleges of Engineering.
    - Colleges for training Teachers.
    - Colleges of Agriculture.
- School education.
  - General ...
    - Secondary ...
      - Upper Secondary or High schools.
      - Lower Secondary or Middle schools.
    - Primary ...
      - Upper Primary schools.
      - Lower Primary schools.
  - Special ...
    - Schools of Medicine.
    - Schools of Engineering.
    - Schools of Agriculture.
    - Schools of Art.
    - Schools of Industries.
    - Schools of Commerce.
    - Schools for training Teachers.

test to regulate promotion from the junior B.A. to the senior B.A. class or from the junior F.A. to the senior F.A. class, these being arranged within the institution concerned. The junior B.A. class prepares students for the B.A. test and finishes a part of the B.A. curriculum. Similarly, the junior F.A. class prepares students for the F.A. test by finishing a part of the F.A. curriculum. English is exclusively used as the vehicle of instruction in collegiate classes.

24. The Upper Secondary or high school stage of general instruction extends over three years. The Sixth Form, which is the highest Form, prepares candidates for the Matriculation Examination of the Madras University or for the Government Upper Secondary Examination under the Commissioner for the Uncovenanted Civil Service Examinations. The above examinations are held at great many centres within and without the Presidency limits. The Fifth and Fourth Forms have each a course of instruction definitely prescribed for them. In the high schools all scholars read English as a subject; and a fairly large number classical native languages also. Instruction in the high school Forms is almost wholly imparted through the medium of English. There is no high school in the Presidency in which instruction is given entirely through the medium of the vernaculars.

25. The Lower Secondary or middle school stage of general instruction extends over three years. The three Forms, Third, Second and First, have each a separate course of instruction. The standard of the highest Form, that is, the Third, is that reached by the Lower Secondary Examination, which has taken the place of the old Middle School Examination. But this examination is not obligatory on any school, nor does it determine class promotion. For the Second and First Forms there is no test examination, other than that of the Inspector's or the Assistant Inspector's visits at the Manager's option. In Lower Secondary or middle schools almost all the pupils bring up English as a subject, and about one in eight an oriental classical language. In some schools the classes here specified are styled vernacular, as teaching through the medium of the vernacular languages (Tamil, Telugu, Canarese, Malayálam, Uriya and Hindustání); and in some they are styled English, as teaching through the medium of English. Where English is taught as a compulsory subject in standards above the second, the school is treated as an English school.

26. The primary stage of general instruction extends over five years, during which a pupil passes through the infant, first, second, third and fourth classes or standards. The five classes mentioned above have separate courses of instruction. The standard of the highest class, that is, the fourth, is the Primary School Examination. Primary schools are classed as English or Vernacular, according as

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2. Institutions are further classified as English and Vernacular.

In classing a school as English or Vernacular, the point to be considered is whether or not English is a regular, *i.e.*, compulsory, portion of the curriculum in standards above the second. If it is not, the school must be classed as Vernacular; if it is, as English.

3. *Standards in Arts Colleges.*—The standards of instruction in Arts Colleges are—in First-grade Colleges, the examination for the degree of Bachelor of Arts; in Second-grade Colleges, the First Examination in Arts.

4. *Standards in Professional Colleges.*—The standards of instruction in Professional Colleges are—in Colleges of Law, the examination for the degree of Bachelor of Laws; in Colleges of Medicine, the examinations for the degrees of Licentiate in Medicine and Surgery and of Bachelor of Medicine and Master in Surgery; in Colleges of Engineering, the examination for the degree of Bachelor of Engineering; in Colleges for training Teachers, the examination for the degree of Licentiate in Teaching.

5. *Standards in Ordinary Schools.*—The standards of instruction in schools for general education are—in Upper Secondary or High schools, the Upper Secondary Examination or the Matriculation Examination; in Lower Secondary or Middle schools, the Lower Secondary or the Seventh Results Standard; in Upper Primary schools, the Primary School Examination or the Fourth Results Standard; in Lower Primary schools, the Third Results Standard.

6. *Standards in Special Schools.*—The standards of instruction in special schools are such as are prescribed from time to time.

7. *Standards in Private Institutions.*—Although no standards are prescribed for these schools, this does not preclude managers of such schools working in accordance with curricula from time to time approved by the Director.

8. Arts Colleges contain the following classes:—First-grade Colleges—Senior B.A. class; Junior B.A. class; Senior F.A. class; Junior F.A. class; Second-grade Colleges—Senior F.A. class; Junior F.A. class.

9. Schools for general education contain the following classes:—Upper Secondary or High schools—Sixth Form; Fifth Form; Fourth Form. Lower Secondary or Middle schools—Third Form (Seventh Results Standard); Second Form (Sixth Results Standard); First Form (Fifth Results Standard). Upper Primary schools—Fourth Class (Fourth Results Standard). Lower Primary schools—Third Class (Third Results Standard); Second Class (Second Results Standard); First Class (First Results Standard); Infant Class (Infant Standard).

English is taught or is not taught as a compulsory subject in classes above the second.

27. Schools for special instruction are intended to prepare students for the various professions and callings in life, and cannot from their nature be classified according to standards of instruction like schools for general education. They may, however, be ranged under three main groups, viz., (i) Training schools and other professional schools, as the schools of medicine, engineering and agriculture which are designed to fit young men to the professions of teaching, medicine, engineering and agriculture; (ii) Technical and art schools, which are designed to afford instruction in the technical subjects embraced in the Government Technical Examination scheme; and (iii) Industrial schools, which are designed to impart instruction in industries or trades of a humble description. Tests are prescribed for all schools of this class.

28. Description of Educational Institutions according to up-keep.—Institutions connected with the Educational Department are divided, as regards the agencies by which they are managed, into four classes as follows: (i) Public institutions under the direct management and control of the Educational Department and maintained from Provincial Funds, supplemented in a few cases by endowments and in all cases by fees which are paid into the treasury and credited to Provincial Funds; these are called Government institutions; (ii) Public institutions under the direct management of Local Boards and Municipalities ('Local Fund schools' and 'Municipal schools') or of committees acting under the control of Government, and mainly supported from public funds, Local, Municipal, or Provincial, but in which the fees, if any, are credited to the local body and not to Government; (iii) Public institutions under private management receiving from Government or Local Boards aid for teaching on the salary or the results system or aid for other educational objects, such as school buildings, furniture, apparatus and appliances, scholarships, cost of food and clothing, and endowments, supplemented in most cases by fees from parents and in some cases by private subscriptions and endowments; these are called 'Aided Schools;' and (iv) Public institutions under private management which although under inspection do not receive aid from public funds.

29. The Government institutions entered in the last paragraph as class (i) comprise institutions of every educational standard. In the first place come three first-grade colleges at the Presidency town, Kumbakónam and Rajahmundry. Of second-grade colleges, only one, viz., the Mangalore College, is now maintained by Government; it has an endowment of Rs. 58,700 subscribed by the public towards the maintenance of a college in South Canara. Of Government Professional Colleges, there are six, the Colleges of Law, Medicine, Engineering and Agriculture, the First-grade Training College, known as the Teachers' College, at Saidapet, and the Second-grade Training College at Calicut. There are four high schools, viz., the Practising departments of the two Training colleges above referred to, the school department of the Mangalore College, and the Madrasa-i-Azam in Madras intended for Muhammadans. Omitting the female branch of the Lawrence Asylum, the Practising branch of the Presidency Training School for Mistresses, and the Government Girls' school, Rajahmundry, are the only girls' schools of the high school standard. Omitting the six Practising schools of the lower secondary standard attached to Government Training schools, there are 31 Government Vernacular Middle schools for boys—26 in the Ganjám and five in the Vizagapatam Agencies—besides the Government Middle English schools at Bhadráchalam and Gunupur. There are 26 Government Middle girls' schools for Hindus and one for Muhammadans. Of the 145 primary schools for boys, 20 are practising schools, 13 are Muhammadan schools in the town of Madras and 112 are located in the Agency tracts of the Northern Circars—27 in Ganjám, 43 in Vizagapatam and 42 in Gódávari. Of primary schools for girls maintained by Government, there are as many as 111, besides the primary departments attached to high and middle schools and to training schools. The Department maintains 30 Government Training Schools for Masters. There are four Training Schools for Mistresses, viz., the Presidency Training school, Madras, the Hobart Training school, Madras, for Muhammadan Mistresses, the Training school, Coimbatore,

and the Moyan Training school for Máppiḷḷa female teachers, Calicut. A few schools or departments of schools have been specially established for the Muhammadan community. Of these, the most important is the Madrasa-i-Azam, a first-grade high school at the Presidency town. The Muhammadan Anglo-Vernacular school at Mailapúr was reduced to the primary standard and is under the direct management of a special committee of Muhammadan gentlemen. In the City of Madras, 13 Government Muhammadan primary schools are maintained on the salary-results system. A Muhammadan Training School for Masters has been at work in Madras since 1881, and it has been made a branch of the Teachers' College. The Hobart girls' school is intended for the training of Muhammadan women. The Lawrence Asylum, Ootacamund, ranks as a Government institution in the departmental returns.

30. In class (ii) of the above classification, *i.e.*, quasi-Government institutions, there are for boys 10 Local Fund and 14 Municipal high schools and 117 Local Fund and 8 Municipal middle schools. With 21 exceptions English is taught in each of these schools. Most of these correspond with schools formerly known as Anglo-Vernacular and taluk schools, but a few are purely vernacular schools. According to the returns for 1892–93 there are 3,208 primary schools managed by Local Boards and Municipal Councils. It is optional with Local Fund Boards to allow English to be taught or not, but most of the schools are vernacular schools, and in 1,999 Board schools the highest class rises above the third results standard. Girls are not excluded from these schools, and the number of girls attending them is increasing. There are three Municipal middle schools, and five Municipal and nine Local Fund primary schools, for girls. The District Boards of Madura and Tinnevelly maintain also, with aid from Provincial Funds, one training school for masters each at their option, all the other training schools having been transferred to the Department. Two Medical schools are also kept up, one by the District Board of Tanjore and one by that of Nellore. A few of the Municipal schools are schools for special classes, such as Muhammadans, Eurasians, silk-weavers, &c., but the majority of them are for all classes, and in large towns they act as feeders to the more advanced schools and do some of the work which used to be formerly done in the primary departments of those schools. The attendance in some of these schools is tolerably large, ranging between one and two hundred, and a few of the best schools are beginning to realize a large income from school-fees. The number of Municipal schools is increasing, but some towns prefer to work entirely on the grant-in-aid system, especially on the results system. In the town of Madras the results system is exclusively followed in regard to poor schools aided from Municipal funds. English is taught in many of the Municipal schools, which thus act as supplementary to more advanced schools.

31. With regard to class (iii), salary grants are given from Provincial Funds to colleges, high schools, and middle schools for boys, and to schools for girls; also to the upper primary departments of these colleges and schools, except in the case of middle and primary departments of superior institutions for boys in Municipalities, these charges being borne from Municipal Funds. All results grants earned by Europeans, by pupils in the Agency tracts of the Northern Circars, by Máppiḷḷas in non-Municipal areas and by girls under all the standards, as also results grants earned by boys under the fourth, fifth, sixth and seventh standards in non-Municipal areas are paid from Provincial Funds; in the town of Madras results grants earned by boys in poor schools under the infant, first, second and third standards are paid by the Municipality. In District Municipalities results grants for boys under all the standards are passed from Municipal Funds; and in non-Municipal areas other than the Agency tracts results grants earned by boys under the infant, first, second and third standards are paid from Local Funds. Schools that receive no aid during a year are classed as unaided schools in the returns of the year, though they may receive aid for the year after its close.

32. Recognition of Public Institutions.—Public institutions of every grade in this Presidency are recognized as such either by the University of Madras or by the Department of Public Instruction. Institutions of collegiate grade have to be affiliated to the University before they can present candidates for any

examination above the Matriculation. As regards Upper Secondary institutions preparing candidates for the Matriculation Examination, the University accepts the recognition accorded to them by the Educational Department. The rules of affiliation demand that an institution seeking the privilege shall satisfy the Syndicate as to the sufficiency of the accommodation and sanitary arrangements, of the furniture, apparatus and appliances provided or proposed to be provided, of the staff employed and its qualifications and of its financial stability. The Madras Educational Rules require that before any institution is recognized by the Department and is thus permitted to present pupils for public or standard examinations, it shall satisfy certain definite conditions as to staff, accommodation and sanitation, admission of pupils, inter-school rules, and maintenance of registers. It has been laid down (i) that as regards staff, the permanent headmaster of every newly opened school and every newly appointed headmaster shall (1) be a Licentiate in Teaching, or (2) hold a trained teacher's certificate, or (3) hold an untrained teacher's certificate and have had at least four years' approved service as a teacher in recognized schools, or (4) have had at least seven years' approved service as a teacher in recognized schools; in every school at least one-half of the general staff, exclusive of pandits, munshis, gymnastic instructors, and writing-masters, shall consist of persons who (1) are Licentiates in Teaching, or (2) hold trained teachers' certificates, or (3) hold untrained teachers' certificates and have had at least two years' approved service as teachers in recognized schools, or (4) have had at least five years' approved service as teachers in recognized schools; the general educational qualifications of all regular teachers shall be such as may be prescribed from time to time by Government; non-Indian diplomas or certificates accepted by the Madras Government shall be held as qualifications required by these rules; and there shall be at least one regular teacher, exclusive of pandits, munshis, gymnastic instructors, and writing-masters, for every fifty pupils on the rolls; (ii) that as regards accommodation, sanitation, and furniture and appliances, no new school shall be recognized which is held in a building of which the site, plan and accommodation have not been approved by the Department; when the accommodation is added to, the plan of the additional building must be submitted for the approval of the same authority; every school building shall be maintained in substantial repair and in a cleanly condition; it shall be subject to inspection by the educational Inspecting officer, and such officers of the Medical, Sanitary and Engineering Departments as the Government directs; in primary schools held in closed buildings, the dimensions of the building shall be such as to provide at least 6 square feet and 60 cubic feet of space for each pupil on the rolls; in all other schools, the space provided for each pupil on the rolls shall not be less than 8 square feet and 80 cubic feet; no class room shall be permanently used as such by a larger number of pupils than the Inspector or Sanitary officer has declared it sufficient to accommodate; every school above the primary grade shall be provided with an approved latrine; every school shall be provided with such furniture as the Department may declare to be necessary; it shall also be provided with the apparatus and appliances declared by the Department to be necessary for the standard of instruction up to which it teaches; (iii) that as to admission of pupils, no pupil shall be newly admitted to any recognized school unless accompanied by his parent or guardian, or at least provided with a letter of application for admission from his parent or guardian; (iv) that as to inter-school rules, no pupil who has already been enrolled for a term at any recognized school shall be admitted to another during that term, except on production of a leaving certificate; no pupil who has previously studied in any recognized school shall be admitted to another unless he presents a leaving certificate from his last school showing (*a*) that he has paid all fees due to that school, (*b*) the class in which he studied at the time of leaving it, and (*c*) if it is the time when the annual promotions take place, whether he has qualified for promotion to a higher class; the headmaster of the school into which a pupil is admitted shall not place him in a higher class during the term in which he has been admitted than the one he would have been in at the school he has left; the headmaster shall give a leaving certificate at any time to a pupil who asks for it for good and sufficient reasons, and shall give such certificate without any inquiry into reasons

if it be asked for at the end of a term or at the beginning of a term before the latest date fixed for the payment of the fee ; if a pupil is found to have obtained admission by means of a false certificate or false representations of any kind, he shall be summarily dismissed with forfeiture of whatever fees he may have paid; and (v) that, as to maintenance of registers, every school shall keep in the prescribed forms and submit to the Inspecting officer a register of admissions and withdrawals, a monthly register of attendance, fees and fines, and a time-table. Aided institutions are further required to keep an acquittance roll, to keep a catalogue of the books in their libraries, and a register of the books taken out, to provide, if of the collegiate grade, for one or more common rooms for the use of members of the staff when not engaged in teaching, to assign a fixed place to every student in the college classes, and to observe certain rules of discipline. Institutions under the management of the Department and Local Boards are further required to observe more stringent restrictions in respect of the wearing of gowns by professors and graduate teachers in the college and upper secondary departments, the employment of a qualified staff, the maximum strength of classes in different departments, the levy of fees at notified rates, the maintenance of special registers, the provision of adequate apparatus and appliances, the supply of gymnastic and calisthenic apparatus, the holding of written examinations at specified intervals, the observance of school-hours and vacations and holidays, the regulation of punishments for breaches of discipline and the use of school buildings. Training institutions under public and private management have, in addition to the general conditions mentioned above, also to satisfy certain special conditions as to the professional qualifications of the staff, the minimum qualifications of the students for admission the dates of admission and of withdrawal of students, the period of training, the execution of agreements by students and the leave of students. Special relaxations are permitted, but these are of a temporary character, every school being required gradually to conform itself strictly to the provisions of the Educational rules. Besides the above obligatory rules, valuable hints and suggestions are appended to the Educational Rules on the organization and management of recognized schools, the scheme of instruction therein, the physical and moral training of pupils, the equipment of schools and the up-keep of school-houses. All recognized institutions, especially those under public management, are expected to work up to the ideal of public institutions as sketched above.

33. Courses of Instruction and Standards of Examination.—(A) One uniform curriculum of studies has been prescribed by the Madras Educational Rules for adoption in all recognized schools for general education, whether under public management or under private management; and, in the case of aided schools under private management, whether aided by salary grants or by results grants. The subjects of instruction prescribed for the eight standards constituting the primary and the lower secondary stages of instruction are divided into two groups—Compulsory and Optional. Three subjects are required to be taught in every school as compulsory subjects, viz., (1) Reading, Recitation and Grammar of the language of the pupil, (2) Writing, Spelling and Composition in the language of the pupil, and (3) Arithmetic. These constitute in other words the three 'R's, a knowledge of which is essential to every one, and hence the subjects are termed compulsory subjects. The language of the pupil is his vernacular mother-tongue. *First language.*—In the infant standard, a pupil is taught to read and write the letters of the alphabet; in the first and second standards, to read from printed books, to recite a few lines of easy verse and to transcribe a sentence in large hand on a slate, board or cadjan; in the third standard, to read from printed books and plain manuscripts, to recite easy verses and to answer questions on the meaning and subject-matter of the verses recited, and to transcribe a sentence in middle-sized hand on paper; in the fourth and higher standards, to read with ease, correctness and intelligence from printed books and manuscripts, to recite verses and answer questions on the meaning and construction of words and subject-matter of the verses recited and to answer questions on Grammar. *Arithmetic.*—In the infant and first standards the pupil is taught counting and simple addition of numbers of one or two digits, chiefly by means of ball-frames or other concrete objects; in the second standard, addition and subtraction; in the third standard, the four

simple rules; in the fourth standard, the compound rules, household accounts and bazaar bills and fractions; and in the fifth, sixth and seventh standards, simple and compound proportion, practice, square measure and simple interest, averages and percentages. It is open to a pupil at the same time to bring up any language as his first language. The optional subjects, that is, the subjects which a pupil may elect to study along with the compulsory subjects, are 15 in number:— Kindergarten Occupations, Object Lessons or Elementary Science, Singing and Action Songs, Drill with Gymnastic or Calisthenics, Second language, Needle-work, Geography, Drawing, Hygiene and Elementary Sanitary Science, History of India, Agriculture, Mensuration, History of Great Britain and Ireland, Domestic Economy, and Geometry and Algebra; two of these, viz., Needle-work and Domestic Economy, are exclusively intended for female pupils, and two, viz., Agriculture and Mensuration, for male pupils, the rest being open to both. Kindergarten Occupations, Object Lessons, Singing and Free-hand Drawing form a note-worthy feature of the curriculum. Drill with Gymnastics is taught in Boys' schools and Drill with Calisthenics in Girls' schools. The Second language may be either English or one of the Vernacular languages of the Presidency or a classical or European language (either Sanskrit, Arabic, Latin, Persian, French or German), but other than that brought by the pupil as his First language. The subjects of instruction in the Upper Secondary or the High School course are those prescribed for the Matriculation Examination, or for the compulsory branches of the Upper Secondary Examination, according as the pupils are prepared for either of these examinations. The Matriculation Examination, as at present constituted, being almost equal in scope and difficulty to the Upper Secondary Examination, the two curricula present very little variation; except that the standard in English Grammar, Composition, Geography and History is a little more searching in the latter than in the former examination, and that Physics and Chemistry are included in the Matriculation, but not in the Upper Secondary Examination curriculum. The curricula prescribed by the University are followed in colleges. (B) The curriculum for training institutions comprises the following:—In first-grade colleges, the subjects prescribed by the University for the L.T. degree; in all other institutions (1) the subjects prescribed for the examination in Method and School-management, (2) Reading and Recitation, (3) Black-board Exercises in Writing, Map-drawing and the Drawing of Illustrations for class teaching, (4) Free-hand Drawing, (5) Special or technical subjects at the option of the student, (6) Model lessons and Critical lessons. Teaching in the practising school, which is one of the most important functions of a training institution, embraces the compulsory and optional subjects included in the curriculum of secondary and primary schools attached to the training institutions. Particular attention is paid to the acquisition of the requisite knowledge and skill in the treatment of the different subjects taught in the practising school. (C) For Industrial and Art schools, courses of instruction are prescribed in four standards, designated A, B, C and D, in 19 subjects—carpentry, blacksmith's work, rattan work, printing, book-binding, boot and shoe making, pottery, weaving on the native hand-loom, weaving on the European hand-loom, carpet-weaving, tailoring, embroidery, white-embroidery, lace-making, braid-making, tape-making, hand-knitting, machine-knitting, and instrumental music. Carpentry is the most popular subject with Industrial schools for men and lace-making and embroidery with Industrial schools for women. Increasing attention is paid to the subject of weaving.

34. Collegiate Education.—The Madras University has 15 first-grade colleges and 32 second-grade colleges affiliated to it. Of the 12 first-grade colleges situated in British territory, the Presidency College is the only one which has been affiliated in all the sub-divisions of the branches of the Science division. Six of the other colleges have been affiliated in Mathematics, 4 in Mixed Mathematics and Advanced Physics, 1 in Biology and Zoology, 7 in Mental and Moral Science and 8 in History. The Madras Christian College teaches five branches of the Science division, St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly, four branches, the Rajahmundry and Kumbakónam Colleges three each, and the remaining colleges one or two branches only. Particulars regarding the different colleges in the Presidency are given in the following table:—

Colleges.	Average number on the rolls monthly during the year.	Average daily attendance.	Annual cost of educating each scholar.	
			Total cost.	Cost to Government.
GOVERNMENT.				
First Grade.				
Presidency College	381	310	339	262
Kumbakónam College	233	217	168	105
Rajahmundry College	137	125	271	215
Second Grade.				
Mangalore College	53	49	129	64
BOARD.				
Second Grade.				
Salem College	24	23	111	48
V. J. College, Palghat	151	134	58	15
Brennen College, Tellicherry	58	55	73	21
AIDED.				
First Grade.				
Christian College, Madras	788	732	114	35
Pachaiyappa's College	185	168	169	43
S.P.G. College, Tanjore	93	88	142	61
St. Joseph's College, Trichinopoly	328	291	153	34
S.P.G. College, Trichinopoly	206	186	91	27
Caldwell College, Tuticorin	19	19	617	193
St. Aloysius College, Mangalore	74	65	319	52
Noble College, Masulipatam	59	53	147	28
Second Grade.				
Native College, Berhampore	15	12	200	66
Hindu College, Vizagapatam	43	38	91	28
Pithapur Rajah's College, Cocanada	33	28	113	14
A.E.L.M. College, Guntúr	26	23	210	43
Church of Scotland Mission College	95	84	66	12
Doveton College, Madras	20	18	666	125
St. Mary's College, Madras	24	21	188	9
Wesleyan Mission College, Ráyapet	38	35	202	52
Wardlaw College, Bellary	28	25	141	38
St. Joseph's College, Cuddalore	68	62	167	38
Cuddalore Town College	25	21	99	23
Coimbatore College	59	52	116	47
St. Michael's College, Coimbatore	19	18	164	6
Wesleyan Mission College, Negapatam	25	22	216	71
Native College, Madura	67	60	57	8
C.M.S. College, Tinnevelly	36	28	220	63
Hindu College, Tinnevelly	87	84	56	11
UNAIDED.				
First Grade.				
Mahárája's College, Vizianagram	98	96	167	...
Second Grade.				
Pasumalai College	34	31	126	...
Kerala Vidyásála, Calicut	48	46	95	...

As might be expected the cost is heavy in Government colleges. The position of the Bachelors of Arts of the University, as far as it can be ascertained up to 31st March 1892, is shown in the following statement:—

Bachelors of Arts up to 31st March 1892.	In Government service.							Teachers in aided and private schools.	Vakils.		Merchants.	Mirasidars.	Of independent means.	Pensioners.	Students at Professional Colleges.	Appointment in Native States.	Total	Occupation unknown.
	Judicial.	Revenue.	Educational.	Engineering.	Indian Medical Service.	Clerical.	Clerks under Rs. 100 per mensem.		High Court.	Others.								
2,679 ...	298	206	27	25	5	3	434	340	72	160	2	4	5	6	87	106	1780	899

A large number of graduates are employed in educational work or as clerks; about a fifth in the Revenue and Judicial Departments; 232 have become legal practitioners, 72 in the Madras High Court and the remainder in the mufassal courts; 57 graduates in arts, some of whom subsequently graduated in law also, have become District Munsifs; one Bachelor of Arts is the Diwán of Mysore and another is a Judge in Travancore.

35. Secondary Education.—The scheme of studies in the secondary stages of instruction has already been described. The extent of secondary education on the 31st March 1893 is given below:—

Schools.	Government.		Board.		Aided.		Unaided.		Total.	
	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.
Upper Secondary or High Schools ...	4	944	24	3,270	72	16,704	34	5,510	134	26,428
Lower Secondary or Middle Schools	40	2,474	125	8,237	227	17,120	68	3,540	460	31,371
Total ...	44	3,418	149	11,507	299	33,824	102	9,050	594	57,799

Of the 439 lower secondary schools, 225 were English and 234 were vernacular schools. In the following statement the average cost of educating each pupil in secondary schools during 1892–93 is worked out:—

——		Government schools.	Board schools.	Aided schools.	Unaided schools.
		RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.
Total annual average cost of educating each pupil.	Upper Secondary schools	37 7 6	40 6 3	34 10 6	23 15 9
	Lower Secondary schools	45 14 1	17 7 6	22 14 7	11 15 6
Average annual cost to Provincial Funds.	Upper Secondary schools	24 11 7	8 14 6	4 8 3	...
	Lower Secondary schools	19 9 2	3 0 1	3 1 9	...
Average annual cost to Local and Municipal Funds.	Upper Secondary schools	...	7 3 5	1 0 7	...
	Lower Secondary schools	...	6 4 4	1 4 5	...

36. Primary Education for Boys.—Particulars of primary schools and scholars are given in the following table:—

Class of schools.	1892–93.			Nationality.							
							Hindus.				
	Number of schools.	Number of pupils.	Average.	Europeans and Eurasians.	Native Christians.	Muhammadans.	Bráhmans.	Non-Bráhman Caste Hindus.	Paraiyas and kindred classes.	Aborigines.	Others.
Government	145	4,834	33	3	45	833	556	2,578	267	549	3
Board	3,208	132,152	41	10	1,365	30,585	19,925	76,615	3,276	361	15
Aided	9,482	281,481	30	401	24,238	18,888	29,435	195,723	12,041	731	24
Unaided	6,262	131,979	21	74	8,285	11,348	9,887	94,979	6,879	521	6
Total ...	19,097	550,446	...	488	33,933	61,654	59,803	369,895	22,463	2,162	48

A comparative statement showing the average cost of educating each pupil in a primary school is also subjoined :—

——	Government schools.	Board schools.	Aided schools.	Unaided schools.
	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.
Total annual average cost of educating each pupil ...	6 1 3	4 6 6	3 5 5	1 15 7
Average annual cost to Provincial Funds	5 12 6	0 6 10	0 3 2	...
Average annual cost to Local and Municipal Funds	...	3 2 6	1 1 2	...

37. Special Schools.—In the scheme of classification of institutions sketched in foot-note No. [5], special schools have been grouped under seven heads—Schools of Medicine, Engineering, Agriculture, Art, Industries, Commerce and for training Teachers. The last class, being the most numerous and important educationally, will be noticed separately. Particulars relating to the remaining six classes of special schools are given in the following table, which shows their strength on the 31st March 1893 :—

Classes of schools.	Number of schools.	Number of pupils.	Nationality.							
						Hindus.				
			Europeans and Eurasians.	Native Christians.	Muhammadans.	Bráhmans.	Non-Bráhman Caste Hindus.	Panchamas and other kindred classes.	Aborigines.	Others.
Schools of Medicine	3	367	43	80	29	44	167	...	...	4
Schools of Engineering	1	224	16	11	5	111	78	...	...	3
Schools of Agriculture	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Schools of Art	5	784	319	56	32	24	348	5	...	...
Schools of Industries (including Reformatory School)	17	1,196	190	433	274	52	219	23	5	...
Schools of Commerce	1	27	5	2	...	1	19	...	...	...
Total ...	27	2,598	573	582	340	232	831	28	5	7

The Schools of Medicine prepare candidates for the Hospital Assistant Examination; the School of Engineering for the Overseer, Surveyor and Draftsman Tests; the School of Arts for the Government Technical Examinations in subjects connected with the Fine Arts; the Schools of Industries for the Government Technical and the Standard Examinations in Industrial subjects; and the Schools of Commerce for the Government Technical examinations in commercial subjects. The following statement, which exhibits the results of the Government Technical Examinations during the past year under the grades of Advanced, Intermediate and Elementary, indicates the nature of the subjects in which examinations are held :—

Subjects.	1892–93.					
	Advanced.		Intermediate.		Elementary.	
	Examined.	Passed.	Examined.	Passed.	Examined.	Passed.
Practical, Plane and Solid Geometry	...	...	6	4	...	...
Surveying, Levelling and Setting out	...	...	41	17	...	...
Do. do. (Agricultural)	...	...	26	14	...	...
Inorganic Chemistry	3	3	14	8	...	...
Do. do. (Agricultural)	...	...	15	10	...	...
Pure Mathematics { First stage	...	...	10	10	...	...
Pure Mathematics { Second stage	...	...	2	1	...	...
Mensuration	...	...	69	32	65	7
Statics, Kinetics, &c.	...	...	3	3	...	...
Applied Mechanics	...	...	1	1	...	...
Hydraulics	...	...	3	...	...	...
Building Materials and Construction	...	...	5	2	22	2
Plan Drawing from specification	...	...	5	2	21	...
Earth Work, Road Work, Railway Work ...	...	...	1	...	...	...
Bridge-making	...	...	1	1	...	...
Mechanical Drawing	...	...	2	2	...	...
Organic Chemistry	...	...	...	...	...	...
Do. do. Agricultural	...	...	29	26	...	...
Physiography	...	...	19	3	...	...
Agriculture (old syllabus)	17	8	...	...	42	23
Animal Physiology. { First stage	...	...	...	...	...	...
Animal Physiology. { Second stage	...	...	4	3	...	...
Veterinary Science. { First stage	...	...	13	10	...	...
Veterinary Science. { Second stage	...	...	6	1	...	...
Botany ... ... { First stage / Second stage ... }	...	...	12	12	6	3
Agricultural Engineering	...	...	15	6	...	...
Forestry	...	...	...	...	...	...
Economic Entomology	...	...	...	...	...	...
Hygiene	...	...	2	1	...	...
Drawing, Painting and Design	40	29	353	182	191	62
Wood and Copper-plate Engraving	...	...	...	...	3	...
Printing	...	...	3	2	1	1
Carpentry and Joinery	...	...	4	...	35	31
Lace-making	...	...	7	5	4	4
Music	...	...	8	7	16	14
Mercantile Arithmetic	...	...	...	...	35	9
Book-keeping	...	...	63	48	50	10
Commercial Correspondence	...	...	...	...	50	13
Phonography	...	...	3	3	8	5
Business Correspondence	...	...	71	59	...	...
Banking and Political Economy	...	...	3	3	...	...
Light	...	...	1	...	...	...
Electricity and Magnetism	...	...	1	...	1	...
Pottery and Porcelain Manufacture	...	...	1	1	...	...
Modelling	...	...	...	...	3	1
Jewellers' Work	...	...	...	...	...	...
Silversmiths' Work	...	...	...	...	1	...
Tailoring	...	...	...	...	12	8
Boot and Shoe making	...	...	...	...	1	...
Blacksmiths' Work	...	...	...	...	3	3
Political Economy	...	...	...	...	2	1
Weaving	...	...	...	...	6	3
Rattan Work	...	...	...	...	3	3
Carpet-weaving	...	...	...	...	14	10
Embroidery	...	...	...	...	8	4
Physical Geography	...	...	...	...	1	...
Commercial Geography	...	...	...	...	2	1
Total ...	60	40	822	479	609	218

38. Training Institutions.—Training institutions are of five grades—first-grade collegiate, second-grade collegiate, upper secondary, lower secondary and primary. The Teachers' College, Saidapet, the only first-grade training college now in existence, has already been noticed separately. This college and the Government College, Calicut, train second-grade collegiate teachers. Of the 39 existing training schools for masters, 8 are of the upper secondary, 21 of the lower secondary, and 10 of the primary grade. The gymnastic training class, which was established and worked with success for several years by the Physical Training and Field Games' Association, Madras, was transferred to the Teachers' College, and had 28 gymnasts under training on the 31st March 1893. There are no training institutions for mistresses of the collegiate grades. Of the 17 training schools for mistresses, 8 are of the upper secondary grade, 5 of the lower secondary grade and 4 of the primary grade. The Presidency Training School for

Mistresses is the most important of its kind, and is under the direct superintendence of a lady from Europe, who is assisted by two mistresses who have passed the B.A. and L.T. Degree Examinations of the Madras University. The average cost of training each student in the training schools for masters and mistresses is compared below :—

—		Government schools.	Board schools.	Aided schools.	Unaided schools.
		Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
Total annual average cost of educating each pupil.	Training schools for masters...	96 7 3	158 2 3	173 7 11	102 2 0
	Training schools for mistresses.	165 9 4	...	182 15 3	...
Average annual cost to Provincial Funds.	Training schools for masters...	96 0 7	62 5 11	85 0 0	...
	Training schools for mistresses.	165 8 6	...	78 9 1	...
Average annual cost to Local Funds.	Training schools for masters...	...	94 12 6	...	...
	Training schools for mistresses.	...	...	...	...

39. Teachers' Certificates.—Teachers' certificates are of two kinds :—(1) certificates of ability to teach the subjects that ordinarily enter into the curricula of schools for general instruction, and (2) certificates of ability to teach certain special subjects. These special subjects are known as 'Technical subjects.' A certificate of the former kind is designated 'General Teachers' certificate' or briefly 'Teachers' certificate;' a certificate of the latter kind 'Technical Teachers' certificate.' Teachers' certificates are of five grades, namely :—(1) Licentiate in Teaching; (2) Second-grade collegiate; (3) Upper Secondary; (4) Lower Secondary; (5) Primary. Technical Teachers' certificates are of three grades, namely :—(1) Advanced, (2) Intermediate, (3) Elementary. The examination for Teachers' certificates whether in general or in technical subjects is conducted by a standing Board of Examiners. The scheme of examination is shown at foot.[6] In 1892–93 there were 29,395 teachers employed in schools connected with the Department. Of these 149 formed the European staff, 6,096 were holders of trained and 1,385 holders of untrained Teachers' certificates, and 7,692 had passed only the general education test; 14,073 had passed no examination whatever. Of the total number of teachers 1,381 were Muhammadans employed in elementary schools, most of whom were unpassed. Comparing the figures of 1882–83 and of 1892–93 there was a much larger number of certificated teachers in the latter year. Special efforts are being made by means of training and sessional schools, to raise the number of qualified teachers.

40. Female Education.—In early years, female education was entirely in the hands of the various missionary societies, such as the Free Church, the Wesleyan and Church Mission Societies, and the S.P.G. Subsequently secular schools sprung

[6] Scheme of Examination for Teachers' Certificates.—(i) *General Teachers' Certificates.*—The examination for certificates of ability to teach the general subjects of instruction consists of two parts :—(1) a written examination and (2) a practical test. The minimum educational qualifications for admission to the examinations for Teachers' certificates are, for the Licentiate in Teaching, those laid down in the bye-laws and regulations of the Madras University; for the Second-grade Collegiate Teachers' certificate, a certificate of having passed the First Examination in Arts of the Madras University; for the Upper Secondary Teachers' certificate, a certificate of having passed the Matriculation Examination, or the compulsory portion of the Upper Secondary Examination, or the Higher Examination for Women; for the Lower Secondary Teachers' certificate, a certificate of having passed the Lower Secondary Examination, or the late Middle School Examination in the first or second class; for the Primary Teachers' certificate, a certificate of having passed the Primary School Examination, the late Middle School Examination in the third class, or the late Special Upper Primary Examination. Candidates are classified as *trained* or *untrained*; the former embracing those who have gone through the prescribed course at a recognized training institution, the latter including all others. The written examination is held twice a year at various centres. The written examination for Teachers' certificates embraces the following subjects: for Second-grade Collegiate Teachers' certificates—(*a*) to answer questions on the best methods of teaching the subjects, compulsory and optional, included in the curriculum of Secondary and Primary schools; (*b*) to answer questions on the art of oral teaching generally; (*c*) to answer questions on the form of school registers, the mode of keeping them, making returns from them, and regarding the correct forms of official correspondence; (*d*) to write notes of a lesson on a given subject; (*e*) to answer questions on the organization of Secondary and Primary schools; (*f*) to answer questions connected with moral discipline as affecting the character and conduct of the pupils of Secondary and Primary schools. For Upper Secondary Teachers' certificates—(*a*) to answer questions on the best methods of teaching the subjects, compulsory and optional, included in the curriculum of Lower Secondary and Primary schools; (*b*) to answer questions on the art of oral teaching generally; (*c*) to answer questions on the form of Lower Secondary and Primary school registers, the mode of keeping them, making returns from them, and regarding the correct forms of official correspondence; (*d*) to write notes of a lesson on a given subject; (*e*) to answer questions on the organization of Lower Secondary and Primary schools; (*f*) to answer questions connected with moral discipline as affecting the character and conduct of the pupils of Lower Secondary and Primary schools. For Lower Secondary Teachers' certificates—(*a*) to answer questions on the best methods of teaching the subjects, compulsory and optional, included in the curriculum of Primary schools; (*b*) to answer questions on the art of oral teaching generally; (*c*) to answer questions on the form of Primary school registers, the mode of keeping them, and making returns from them; (*d*) to write notes of a lesson on a given subject; (*e*) to answer questions on the organization and discipline of a Primary school. For Primary Teachers' certificates—(*a*) to answer questions on the art of oral teaching

up, among which may be specially named several large schools established by the Maháràja of Vizianagram, six of them being situated in the city of Madras and managed by the Madras Branch of the National Indian Association, and others in the Northern Circars, particularly at Vizianagram, and controlled directly by the Maháràja. The schools in Madras are aided on the salary-grant system. About twenty-five years ago, a Government Training school was established at Madras for the education of teachers for native girls' schools, but it became in great measure a high school for East Indians and Europeans, and during its existence educated only 60 Hindu and Native Christian teachers. It has since been re-organized on a substantial basis, the staff being strengthened considerably, and is now known as the Presidency Training School for Mistresses. In 1882–83 there were 63 Government, 3 Board, 526 aided and 168 unaided schools for girls—16 of them being high schools. During the succeeding ten years perceptible progress has been made, the corresponding figures for 1892–93 being 158, 17, 695, and 178, respectively, 27 of them being high schools. Government schools are found in all the districts except Cuddapah, Tinnevelly and South Canara, the largest number of them being located in the districts of Gódávari (25), Malabar (18), Kistna (16), Vizagapatam (13), Ganjám (11), Nellore (10), and South Arcot (10). With a few exceptions, the schools are doing fairly good work. Only 17 girls' schools are at present maintained by Local and Municipal Boards, 9 by the former and 8 by the latter. The Municipal schools are at Bellary, Máyavaram, Kumbakónam and Calicut. The Government has been liberally aiding private enterprise, nor have Mission Societies been behind-hand in offering facilities for female education, and in many cases of late more especially for the education of girls of the higher castes. In eleven districts, training schools for mistresses are now open under the management of the Free Church and the Church Mission Societies and the S.P.G. and several American Missions. In Tinnevelly, in pursuance of the policy inaugurated by Mr. Lash of the Church Mission Society, who developed the Sarah Tucker Training school into an institution mainly for the training of caste Hindu girls who would be suitable for teachers in caste schools, several thousands of girls are studying in small elementary schools maintained by the Church Mission Society in different parts of the district, mostly under the management of trained schoolmistresses assisted by their husbands. Other training schools of importance are (1) the American Mission School, Madura; (2) St. John's School, Nazareth; (3) the Christian Female Training School, Madras. In 1892–93, as many as 133 schoolmistresses obtained teachers' certificates. One hundred and ninety-six girls' schools ranked as lower secondary or middle schools. During the ten years 1883–1893, the number of girls at school has more than doubled, as will be seen from the following table :—

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generally ; (*b*) to answer questions on the form of Lower Primary school registers, the mode of keeping them, and making returns from them ; (*c*) to write notes of a lesson on a given subject. For the Second-grade Collegiate and the Upper Secondary grade the written examination comprises three papers embracing respectively the following subjects :— (1) Organization, school registers and returns, and official correspondence ; (2) Discipline ; (3) Methods of teaching, oral teaching, and notes of a lesson. For the Lower Secondary grade, it comprises two papers, the first of which embraces the organization, discipline, registers and returns required for an Upper Primary school ; and the second, methods of teaching, oral teaching and notes of a lesson. For the Primary grade, it comprises two papers, one of which deals with the registers and returns required for a Lower Primary school, and the other with oral teaching and notes of a lesson. The same question papers are given out to trained and to untrained candidates of the same grade. Trained candidates are considered to have passed the written examination, if they obtain not less than 45 per cent. of the maximum marks in each paper, and untrained candidates, if they obtain not less than 35 per cent. in each paper. The practical test for teachers of the collegiate and upper secondary grades is conducted by the Board, and that for teachers of the lower secondary and primary grades in the mufassal is ordinarily conducted by local committees appointed by the Director, consisting of not fewer than two members, one of whom is the Inspector of the Circle, or the Assistant Inspector of the Division. The Inspectress of the Circle is an *ex-officio* member of all committees before which female candidates appear for examination. Such local committees act in subordination to the Board of Examiners. The practical test for certificates of the upper secondary grade is also sometimes entrusted to these local sub-committees. No candidate is admitted to the practical test until he has passed the written examination. In the practical test each candidate is required to give at least one lesson, of not less than thirty and not more than forty-five minutes' duration, before not fewer than two members of the Board of Examiners or before the local committee. He is also tested in reading and in exercises on the black-board. The Board or the local committee also requires the candidate to show his ability to conduct a class in drill and gymnastics or calisthenics, or in any other subject included in the curriculum. To pass this test, trained candidates are required to obtain 33 per cent. under each of the above heads and untrained candidates 25 per cent. Trained teachers' certificates and untrained teachers' certificates are each of two classes, the first and second, the minimum marks to be obtained in each case being different. (ii) *Technical Teachers Certificates.*—No candidate is admitted to the test for a technical teachers' certificate of ability to teach a special subject unless he has passed the Advanced, or the Intermediate, or the Elementary Technical Examination, as the case may be, in the subject in which he desires to be tested, or an examination accepted by the Director of Public Instruction as equivalent. Candidates for teachers' technical certificates are required to show their ability in teaching each of the special subjects in which they wish to obtain a certificate, in accordance with such rules as may, from time to time, be prescribed by the Director.

Number of girls in	1883–84.	1884–85.	1885–86.	1886–87.	1887–88.	1888–89.	1889–90.	1890–91.	1891–92.	1892–93.
Girls' schools	27,775	31,094	36,184	38,488	38,447	40,103	41,405	45,663	48,358	49,901
Boys' schools	19,351	19,341	21,951	25,730	25,884	27,083	30,639	36,915	45,086	49,490
Training schools	263	363	291	324	311	331	290	253	243	346
Technical schools	57	62	65	93	93	171	56	207	218	462

41. Education of special classes.—On the 31st March 1893, there were 85 European schools attended by 7,323 European or Eurasian pupils. Not less than 47 of the schools were for European girls, and 40 of this number were secondary schools. Of the remaining institutions, 2 were colleges, 26 were high schools, and 6 special schools. Many Europeans were also attending institutions not specially intended for them. According to the annual returns for 1892–93, there were 1,756 Muhammadan schools—56 secondary, 1,690 primary, 6 training and 4 industrial schools, with an aggregate attendance of 64,216 Muhammadan pupils. Besides these, 23,641 Muhammadan pupils were reading in non-Muhammadan schools. So far, therefore, as numbers go, the progress made by this class was considerable during the past decade, though only comparatively few pupils had reached beyond the primary stage of instruction. There are only two high schools for this class, viz., the Government Madrasa-i-Azam and the Harris High School, Ráyapet. At Madras there are 13 Government Muhammadan primary schools besides on the salary-results system. Several municipalities also maintain Muhammadan schools. The following special facilities are allowed to Muhammadans : (*a*) Muhammadan pupils pay only half-fees; (*b*) Special scholarships are allowed—eight on the results of the Matriculation Examination besides some on those of the F.A. Examination ; (*c*) six scholarships are also reserved for them in the College of Agriculture ; (*d*) there are three special Sub-Assistant Inspectors for the Northern, Central and Southern Circles, and a Sub-Assistant of Máppiḷḷa schools for the Malabar district. There are also 16 Inspecting schoolmasters for Muhammadan schools, one of whom is paid from Provincial Funds; (*e*) there are 6 training and preparatory schools specially intended for Muhammadans and Máppiḷḷas—2 in the city of Madras and 4 in Malabar; (*f*) the results grants allowed to Muhammadan boys are 25 per cent. higher than those for Hindus; (*g*) a higher rate of salary grant is also passed to teachers employed in Muhammadan schools ; (*h*) a higher rate of stipend is sanctioned to Muhammadan teachers while under training. For Paraiyas and kindred races (better styled comprehensively as Panchamas), there were, at the close of 1892–93, 1,437 schools attended by 15,456 Panchama pupils. There were 10,174 such pupils besides, reading in other schools. Only 13 of the schools were of the secondary grade. As in the case of Muhammadan schools, special facilities are given for the education of Panchamas. During 1892–93, 77 schools were maintained for the aboriginal classes, and 1,491 pupils belonging to these classes were reading in them. There were also 898 pupils of the same classes in other schools.

42. The Grant-in-aid Code.—The Grant-in-aid Code of 1885, as modified from time to time, has been in force. The main purpose of the grant-in-aid is to encourage the extension and improvement of secular education with aid from public funds, which is given with due consideration of the requirements of each locality and of each institution and of the funds at the disposal of Government or of the Local Board.

43. Every institution, on behalf of which aid is sought, must be under the management of a recognized person or body of persons who is responsible to the Department for the maintenance of the institution and the fulfilment of the conditions of recognition and aid ; the manager must, in his application, declare that the conditions of recognition and aid laid down in the Madras Educational Rules and the Grant-in-aid Code are being, and will continue to be fully observed, and that he is prepared to subject the institution and its accounts, establishments, time-table and registers to inspection, and to furnish such returns as may be required ; the manager of a European school must further abide by the conscience clause.

44. Grants from public funds are given for teaching; grants are also given for (1) the salary of superintendents of groups of schools and of European orphanages; (2) the payment of scholarships and of stipends to teachers under training; (3) the cost of food and clothing in European orphanages; (4) the erection, enlargement, purchase and rent of school buildings; (5) the purchase of school furniture, apparatus and appliances; of books for school and public libraries and reading rooms; and of the plant, materials and tools required for laboratories and workshops; and (6) the endowment of professorships, lectureships, teacherships, scholarships, laboratories, workshops, museums, and other educational subjects. Grants for objects (1), (2), (3) and (6) are paid from Provincial Funds, and grants for objects (4) and (5) are paid from Provincial and Local Funds, or from both, according to the source from which the grants for teaching in the schools or standards concerned are paid.

45. Grants for teaching are given on two different systems—(i) on the salary-grant system and (ii) on the results-grant system. The Code has provided for payment of grants for teaching on a combination of the two systems, but very few schools now receive aid on this system, and it has been proposed to give it up altogether. Grants for teaching are payable from Provincial Funds, or Local Funds, or from both. The grants for teaching payable from Provincial Funds are: salary grants to girls' schools and results grants for girls; salary grants to European schools and results grants for European pupils; salary grants to Máppilla schools situated outside municipalities, and results grants for Máppilla pupils in schools situated outside municipalities; salary and results grants to non-poor schools in the Municipality of Madras; salary grants to collegiate and upper secondary departments in district municipalities; salary and results grants for all standards above the third in non-municipal areas; salary and results grants to all schools in the Ganjám, Vizagapatam and Gódávari agencies; salary grants to training schools; salary grants to technical and industrial schools and results grants for pupils in technical and industrial standards. The grants for teaching payable from Local Funds are:—results grants for boys in lower primary standards of poor schools in the Municipality of Madras; salary grants to primary and lower secondary boys' schools and results grants for boys in the primary and lower secondary standards in district municipalities; salary grants to lower primary boys' schools and results grants for boys in lower primary standards in non-municipal areas. Salary grants for teachers employed partly in standards aided from Provincial Funds and partly in standards aided from Local Funds are payable from both funds in a proportion to be determined by the time devoted by the teachers to the several standards.

46. Salary-grants system.—(1) A minimum average daily attendance of 30 pupils in boys' schools, of 20 pupils in girls' schools, of 10 students in superior indigenous schools and training school for masters, of five students in training schools for mistresses, and of six pupils in technical and industrial schools or classes, must be put in by every school aided on this system, excepting poor European schools in small towns and schools for backward and indigenous classes or schools situated in backward localities; (2) teachers must devote ordinarily four hours a day to secular instruction, three hours being accepted in the case of teachers of college classes, head-masters of secondary schools and assistant professors, and two hours in the case of principals of colleges and teachers of oriental languages only or needle-work only; (3) a teacher must not be employed on work beyond his capacity; the minimum qualifications are that the teacher of a collegiate class should hold a teachers' certificate of the collegiate grade; the teacher of an upper secondary form, a certificate of the second-grade collegiate; the teacher of a lower secondary form, a certificate of the upper secondary grade; the teacher of an upper primary class, a certificate of the lower secondary grade; the teacher of a lower primary class, a certificate of the primary grade; the teacher of any of the subjects of the Advanced or Intermediate Technical Examinations, an advanced technical teachers' certificate in the subject; the teacher of any of the subjects of the Elementary Examinations, an intermediate technical teachers' certificate in the subject; and the teacher of any of the subjects included under the art and industrial standards, an elementary technical teachers' certificate in the subject; (4) to be eligible for a grant, a teacher must be protected

from small-pox, and pupils must be similarly protected for admission into boys' schools or schools for European and Native Christian girls; (5) to be eligible for a grant, a mistress teaching Hindu or Muhammadan girls in their homes must have under her instruction at least 10 pupils of not less than ten years of age and must devote to the classes at least twenty hours a week; (6) the maximum grant to a school during a year shall be the sum required to meet the net current expenditure of the year taking into account the current receipts from fees, endowments, and miscellaneous sources; (7) the curriculum of studies prescribed by the Madras Educational Rules must be followed in schools, and in superior indigenous schools such curriculum as may be laid down by the Director; (8) grants are calculated on the salaries actually paid, provided they appear reasonable, or, when no fixed amounts are given, on salaries which the Director may consider appropriate; (9) a grant not exceeding two-thirds of the total salary is given for mistresses holding trained teachers' certificates and employed in remote and backward localities; (10) a grant not exceeding one-half of the total salary is given for (*a*) graduates of non-Indian universities who possess high academic qualifications, (*b*) mistresses educated in non-Indian schools or colleges whose qualifications entitle them, in the opinion of the Director, to rank in the collegiate, second-grade collegiate, or upper secondary grade, (*c*) mistresses holding trained teachers' certificates, (*d*) mistresses holding untrained teachers' certificates and who are employed (i) in schools in backward localities, (ii) in poor schools, especially schools for Europeans or for Muhammadans, in which the fees, if levied at the standard rates, do not cover an adequate portion of the current expenditure, and (iii) as superintendents of girls' schools, (*e*) masters holding trained teachers' certificates of the collegiate, second-grade collegiate, or upper secondary grade, and who are employed (i) in training schools and (ii) in secondary schools situated in non-municipal towns and in villages in which the fees, if levied as the standard rates, do not cover an adequate portion of the current expenditure, (*f*) teachers of technical or industrial subjects holding first-class technical teachers' certificates, and (*g*) gymnastic instructors holding first-class certificates; (11) a grant not exceeding one-third of the total salary is given for (*a*) graduates of non-Indian universities, (*b*) masters holding trained teachers' certificates, (*c*) mistresses holding untrained teachers' certificates, (*d*) uncertificated teachers who have passed a general education test and who are employed, with the approval of the Inspector, (i) in poor schools, especially schools for poor Europeans, (ii) in schools for Muhammadans and (iii) in schools for backward and indigent classes or schools in backward localities, (*e*) masters holding untrained teachers' certificates of the collegiate, second-grade collegiate, or upper secondary grade, and further employed in secondary schools situated in non-municipal towns and in villages, in which the fees, if levied at the standard rates, do not cover an adequate portion of the current expenditure, (*f*) teachers of technical or industrial subjects holding second-class technical teachers' certificates, (*g*) gymnastic instructors holding second-class certificates, (*h*) sewing masters approved by the Inspector when a qualified sewing mistress cannot be procured, and (*j*) (i) teachers of oriental languages and (ii) superintendents and matrons of European orphanages; (12) a grant not exceeding one-fourth of the total salary is given for (*a*) masters holding untrained teachers' certificates and (*b*) uncertificated mistresses who have passed a general education test; (13) a grant not exceeding one-fifth grant is given as exceptional cases to an uncertificated master on condition of his qualifying within a specified period, but it has been proposed to do away altogether with this conditional grant; (14) a grant for a teacher of South Indian vernacular language is given in the college and upper secondary departments only; (15) for a teacher taking leave in general accordance with the Government regulations, half his grant may be drawn, the other half being paid to his *locum tenens* if qualified; (16) the salary grant sanctioned for a certificated teacher in a college or secondary school is continued for him while he attends a special course at an approved technical institution, provided that he passes at the next ensuing Technical Examination in the subject or subjects he has been studying; (17) previous to disbursement of a grant the manager is required to declare that the teacher has received the portion of the salary payable by the manager; (18) a material reduction in the scale of grants is made only after giving six months' notice to the manager; (19) grants are

withheld, reduced or suspended for falsification of registers, misrepresentation in the preparation of bills or other frauds or irregularities.

47. Results Grants.—The results-grant system is that through which the primary education of the masses of the population is being mainly developed and it is also best adapted for that purpose. It affords a great stimulus to work, as the teacher, who is generally the manager of the school, depends for his remuneration on the results produced at inspection. The important features of this system are briefly stated as follows: (1) a minimum average daily attendance of 20 and 10 pupils, respectively, in boys' and girls' schools in municipalities, of 10 and 5 pupils, respectively, in these schools in non-municipal areas, of 6 pupils in technical and industrial schools, and of 5 pupils in schools for backward and indigent classes and in backward localities, must be put in by every school aided on this system for a period commencing from three months preceding the date of application up to the date of examination; (2) the school must have met on 150 school days, if a day school, or 100 school days, if a night school, schools for backward and indigent classes being exempted from this restriction; (3) four hours of secular instruction in a day, or two meetings, each of not less than two hours, whether on the same day or on different days, are held to constitute a school day in the case of day schools, and half the above period to constitute a school day in the case of night schools, or schools for backward and indigent classes and schools and in backward localities; (4) the minimum qualifications of the teachers must ordinarily be the same as are required in the case of salary-grant schools; (5) protection from small-pox is demanded in localities, where it has been declared to be a condition of aid; (6) except in the case of pupils belonging to backward and indigent classes, no male pupil whose age exceeds certain specified limits under the several standards is allowed a grant; (7) the selection of schools for admission to aid is limited to the schools recognized by the Department under the Educational Rules or specially exempted from the operation of the Rules; (8) on the Inspecting officer's recommendations the sanctioning authority selects the schools for aid, determines the standards to be aided and fixes the amount of grant, with reference to the number, the character and the financial condition of the schools, the educational needs of the locality and the funds at disposal; (9) a list of schools finally admitted to aid is published by the Department for the information of the public; (10) pupils are examined in all the subjects in which they are presented by the Inspecting officers or by Boards appointed under special Government notifications and on the dates and at the places previously notified; (11) a nominal roll is furnished to managers by the Inspecting officers to be filled up and handed over to the latter on arrival at the school, and the marks assigned to pupils are entered in ink in the roll; (12) a pass list showing the abstract results of the examination is furnished by the Inspecting officers to the managers immediately after the conclusion of the examination; (13) a pupil does not earn a grant under any standard other than that in which he has been studying during the six months preceding examination; nor does he earn grant for compulsory subjects unless he has passed in all of them at one and the same examination, nor does he earn a grant for an optional subject unless at the same or at a previous examination he has passed the compulsory subjects of the same or a higher standard, nor does he earn a grant for an industrial or art subject unless he has passed the third standard, nor does he earn a grant under the highest industrial standard unless he has passed the compulsory subjects of the fourth standard or the Primary School Examination, nor does he earn a grant for more than two industrial or art subjects at one examination, nor does he earn a grant in any subject in which he has already passed an examination recognized as equivalent or higher, nor does he earn a grant more than once under the same standard or for the same subject; (14) grants for kindergarten occupations and object lessons in the lower primary standards and for singing and action songs and for drill with gymnastics or calisthenics in all standards are determined on the results of the examination of the class as a whole, and in all other subjects on the results of individual examination; (15) grants are paid at two rates for each standard and in each subject, the lower rate, called an ordinary grant, for each pupil obtaining not less than one-third of the maximum marks in each subject, or a 'fair' pass at the class examination,

and the higher rate, called a merit grant, for each pupil obtaining not less than three-fifths of the maximum marks in each subject, or an 'excellent' pass at the class examination; (16) grants for boys are passed at the standard rates as shown in the foot-note,[7] and grants for girls and grants for pupils in special localities and for special classes at certain enhanced rates; (17) certifying memoranda are issued by the Inspecting officers for the grants earned by a school not exceeding the amount originally notified, and after countersignature by a superior Inspecting officer are transmitted to the manager for being cashed; (18) managers have a right of appeal to the sanctioning authority for revision of an order limiting the amount of aid, and to Government from any order of the sanctioning authority refusing to admit a school to the published list or removing the school from the published list; (19) the sanctioning authority reduces the grant earnings of a school by not more than 25 per cent. of the amount earned for defects in organization, discipline, instruction, supervision and accommodation not rectified though pointed out, and withholds, reduces or suspends them altogether for falsification of registers, misrepresentation in the preparation of the nominal rolls, deception in the presentation of pupils or other frauds or irregularities.

48. There are at present five kinds of stipendiary scholarships, viz., (I) Government scholarships awarded for general education on the results of the public examinations; (II) Scholarships or, more correctly, stipends to students under training; (III) Government scholarships attached to special institutions; (IV) Scholarships paid from the interests of endowments vested in the University or under the control of the Department; (V) Private scholarships. (I) Details of

[7] GRANTS CLAIMABLE UNDER DIFFERENT STANDARDS ON THE RESULTS SYSTEM.

Subjects.	Infant Standard.		First Standard.		Second Standard.		Third Standard.		Fourth Standard.		Fifth Standard.		Sixth Standard.		Seventh Standard.	
	Ordinary.	Merit.	Ordinary.	Merit.	Ordinary.	Merit.	Ordinary.	Merit.	Ordinary.	Merit.	Ordinary.	Merit.	Ordinary.	Merit.	Ordinary.	Merit.
	RS. A.	RS. A.	RS. A.	RS. A.	RS. A.	RS. A.	RS. A.	RS. A.	RS. A.	RS. A.	RS. A.	RS. A.	RS. A.	RS. A.	RS. A.	RS. A.
(A) Compulsory ...	0 4	0 8	1 8	2 8	2 8	3 8	3 8	5 0	5 0	6 8	6 8	8 0	8 0	10 0	10 0	12 0
(B) Optional—																
Kindergarten Occupations	0 2	0 4	0 4	0 6	0 6	0 8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	..	...	...
Object Lessons or Elementary Science	0 2	0 4	0 4	0 6	0 6	0 8	0 8	0 12	0 12	1 0	1 0	1 8	1 8	2 0	2 0	3 0
Singing and Action Songs	0 2	0 4	0 4	0 6	0 6	0 8	0 8	0 12	0 12	1 0	1 0	1 8	1 8	2 0	2 0	3 0
*Drill with Gymnastics, or Calisthenics	0 2	0 4	0 2	0 4	0 2	0 4	0 4	0 6	0 6	0 8	0 8	0 12	0 8	0 12	0 12	1 0
Second Language ...	0 4	0 8	0 8	1 0	1 0	1 8	1 8	2 0	2 0	2 8	2 8	3 0	3 0	4 0	4 0	5 0
Needle-work (for girls only) ...	...	...	0 8	1 0	1 0	1 8	1 8	2 0	2 0	3 0	4 0	5 8	5 8	7 0	7 0	8 8
Geography ...	...	...	...	...	0 4	0 8	0 8	1 0	1 0	1 8	1 8	2 0	2 0	2 8	2 8	3 0
Drawing	..	...	...	...	...	...	0 8	1 0	1 0	2 0	2 0	3 0	3 0	4 0	4 0	5 0
Hygiene and Elementary Sanitary Science	...	...	...	...	...	...	0 8	1 0	1 0	1 8	1 8	2 0	2 0	3 0	3 0	4 0
History of India ...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1 0	1 8	1 8	2 0	2 0	2 8	2 8	3 0
Agriculture (for boys only) ...	..	...	...	...	...	..	...	...	2 0	3 0	3 0	4 0	4 0	5 0	5 0	6 0
Mensuration (for boys only) ...	...	...	...	...	...	..	...	...	1 0	1 8	1 8	2 0	2 0	3 0	3 0	4 0
History of Great Britain and Ireland	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1 8	2 0	2 0	2 8	2 8	3 0
Domestic Economy (for girls only) ...	...	...	..	...	...	...	...	...	...	..	1 8	2 0	2 0	2 8	2 8	3 0
Geometry and Algebra	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2 0	3 0	3 0	4 0

* Grants at half these rates are allowed in rural primary boys' schools for native gymnastic exercises and in rural primary girls' schools for *kummi* and *kolattam*.

award of the first-mentioned scholarships are given at foot,[8] from which it will be seen that special encouragement is held out to girls and to pupils of the backward races, to help them to continue their studies to higher standards; also to Bachelors of Arts proceeding to the M.A. degree. (II) The total number of stipends for training from Provincial Funds is at present limited to 25 first-grade collegiate, 36 second-grade collegiate, 60 upper secondary, 390 lower secondary and 705 primary. In allotting stipends preference (other things being equal) is given to the candidate standing highest in the order of merit in the corresponding general education examination, subject to the condition that all the great classes of the population are, as far as practicable, fairly represented. The standard monthly rate of provincial stipend is, for a first-grade collegiate teacher, Rs. 15; for a second-grade collegiate teacher, Rs. 12; for an upper secondary teacher, Rs. 10; for a lower secondary teacher, Rs. 6; and for a primary teacher, Rs. 5. An additional allowance not exceeding Rs. 2 per mensem is also given to Europeans, Eurasians and Muhammadans, to male teachers of the Chingleput district attending the Training School, Madras, and to Hindu female teachers attending the Presidency Training School for Mistresses. In primary training schools for teachers of hill schools in the Agency tracts of the Northern Circars, an additional allowance of Rs. 5 is given. A guardian allowance not exceeding Rs. 5 is also given to caste Hindu women and Muhammadan women who do not permanently reside in the town where the school in which they are being trained is situated. In very exceptional cases, a stipendiary, who is in Provincial, Local or Municipal employment, is allowed to draw a portion not exceeding one-half of the pay of his substantive appointment in addition to his stipend. (III) The following Government scholarships are attached to special institutions :— (a) *School of Arts.*— One scholarship is awarded half-yearly on the results of examination in the first division,

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[8] SCHEME OF GOVERNMENT SCHOLARSHIPS.—(1) *Primary School Examination.*—Eighty scholarships tenable for three years at Rs. 2 per mensem for the first year, Rs. 3 for the second year and Rs. 4 for the third year are awarded annually on the results of the Primary School Examination to enable female pupils to prosecute their studies to the Lower Secondary Examination. The scholarships are distributed in order of merit as follows:—20 to Hindus, 20 to Muhammadans, 28 to Native Christians, and 12 to pupils belonging to the backward classes, provided that if all the scholarships allotted to a class are not appropriated, vacant scholarships are awarded in order of merit to candidates belonging to any of the other classes, preference being given to Hindu and Muhammadan pupils. (2) *Lower Secondary Examination—(a) Female pupils.*—Forty scholarships tenable for three years, at Rs. 5, Rs. 6 and Rs. 7 per mensem respectively during the first, second, and third year are awarded annually on the results of the Lower Secondary Examination to enable female pupils to prosecute their studies to the Matriculation Examination of the Madras University or to the Government Upper Secondary Examination. The scholarships are distributed in order of merit, ten being given to each of the classes of the community referred to in the case of the Primary School Examination scholarships. Except in the case of Hindu and Muhammadan widows, the age of the candidate must not exceed 16 years at the date of the examination. (b) *Uriya pupils (male or female).*—Six scholarships of the monthly value of Rs. 4, tenable for three years, are awarded annually, in order of merit, on the results of the Lower Secondary Examination to enable Uriya pupils to prosecute their studies to the Matriculation Examination of the Madras University or the Upper Secondary Examination. (3) *Matriculation Examination.*—Twenty-four scholarships, tenable for two years, of the monthly value of Rs. 10 each, are awarded annually on the results of the Matriculation Examination to enable pupils to prosecute their studies to the First Examination in Arts of the Madras University. The scholarships are distributed, in order of merit, as follows:—Six to Muhammadans, not being Máppillas, two to Máppillas, two to Uriyas, eight to pupils belonging to the backward classes, and six to female pupils. The age of the candidate must not exceed 19 years at the time of the examination. (4) *First Examination in Arts.*—Twelve scholarships, tenable for two years, of the value of Rs. 15 each, are awarded annually on the results of the First Examination in Arts to enable students to prosecute their studies to the B.A. Degree Examination. The claims of female candidates are preferred to those of male candidates. Among male candidates the scholarships are distributed, in order of merit, to students belonging to the backward classes mentioned above, Máppillas, Muhammadans not being Máppillas and Uriyas, provided that their parents or guardians do not permanently reside in or near a town having a first-grade college. In the event of the holder of a scholarship awarded on the results of the Matriculation Examination obtaining a place in the second class at the First Examination in Arts, the scholarship is continued. In the event of the holder of such a scholarship obtaining a place in the first class at the First Examination in Arts, the rate of scholarship is raised from Rs. 10 to Rs. 15. These continued scholarships are tenable for two years, during which period the holder must prosecute his studies to the B.A. Degree Examination in a college in British territory connected with the Madras Educational Department and approved by the Director; (5) *B.A. Degree Examination.*—Six scholarships of the value of Rs. 30 each, tenable for 22 months or such shorter period as may suffice to enable the holder to appear for the M.A. Degree Examination, are awarded annually on the results of the B.A. Degree Examination to enable promising students to pursue their studies to the M.A. Degree Examination in Branches II or III. Three scholarships are allotted to Branch II and three to Branch III; but a scholarship not appropriated for one branch may be appropriated for the other branch. The candidate must have passed the B.A. Degree Examination in the first or second class in Branch II or III. He must bind himself by written covenant to be approved by the Director, (a) to prosecute his studies to the M.A. Degree Examination in the Branch selected in a first-grade college in British territory connected with the Madras Educational Department and approved by the Director; (b) to place himself under the Principal of the College and of the Professor who is to direct his studies; (c) to pursue his studies continuously and diligently during his tenure of the scholarship; (d) to assist the Professor when called on to do so, as a demonstrator or otherwise; (e) to hold no appointment carrying a fixed stipend; (f) not to attend the Law College during the tenure of the scholarship; (g) to appear for the M.A. Degree Examination in the Branch selected at the end of the period of tenure of his scholarship; only Rs. 20 are paid monthly, the accumulated balance being paid to the scholar on his qualifying for the M.A. Degree, provided that he does so on the first occasion on which he is allowed to appear for the examination. Four scholarships of the monthly value of Rs. 20 each, tenable for 22 months, are given to students who, having passed in Branch I (Mathematics) in the first or second class, forthwith pursue their studies in Branch II or in Branch III of the B.A. curriculum, with a view to pass in the same before hey proceed to the Degree of Bachelor of Arts. The candidate must bind himself by written covenant (a) to prosecute

ordinarily tenable for four years and occasionally extended to five years. The scholarship commences at Rs. 3 a month, is subsequently raised to Rs. 5, then to Rs. 7½, and lastly to Rs. 10 on satisfactory progress being shown. (*b*) *College of Engineering.*—One scholarship of Rs. 30 per mensem in the Engineers' class, two scholarships of Rs. 12½ each in the Engineer Subordinates' class, and four scholarships of Rs. 8 each—two in the Draftsmen class and two in the Surveyors class—are attached to this institution. (*c*) *College of Agriculture.*—Seven district scholarships tenable for thirty-four months, commencing from the 1st August, at Rs. 10 a month for the first year, Rs. 12½ for the second year and Rs. 15 for the remainder of the period, are given, and the 21 districts get them in rotation once in three years; six scholarships are also attached to the college for Muhammadan students; also one scholarship to the first free student in the first class of the senior department. (*d*) *Medical College.*—Only five free scholarships are attached, and no Government stipendiary scholarships. (*e*) *The Government Scholarship to England.*—Six in number, tenable in England by persons who are natives of India, at £200 a year for three years. The scholarships are placed at the disposal of the universities of Calcutta, Bombay, Madras and the Panjab in rotation, one scholarship having been allotted to each of the first two universities in 1886, and one to each of the last two in 1887. (IV) A list of the endowed scholarships is given at foot.[9] The Grant-in-aid Code provides for a third grant being given under certain conditions towards the endowment of scholarships. (V) Numerous private scholarships are attached to individual institutions. A list of the important scholarships, so far as can be made out, is given at foot.[10] The institution of private scholarships is encouraged by means of grants under the Grant-in-aid Code.

49. PROGRESS IN THE NUMBER OF SCHOOLS AND SCHOLARS.—The following statistical summary shows for ten years the number of public institutions classified according to managing agencies, together with the number of scholars attending them :—

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his studies in the branch selected in a first-grade college in British territory connected with the Madras Educational Department and approved by the Director; (*b*) to appear for the B.A. Degree Examination in the Branch selected at the end of his course; (*c*) to hold no appointment carrying a fixed salary; and (*d*) not to attend the Law College during the tenure of the scholarship. Only Rs. 15 are paid monthly, the accumulated balance being paid to the scholar on his passing in the additional branch selected. (6) *Government Technical Examinations.*—Twenty scholarships, tenable for two years, are awarded on the results of the Government Technical Examinations to enable students to prosecute their studies to a higher standard. The scholarships are of the monthly value of Rs. 8 in the case of the Elementary Technical Examination, and Rs. 12 in the case of the Intermediate Technical Examination. No scholarship is awarded in a subject in which there is no higher standard of examination. The age of the candidate must not at the time of examination exceed 18 years in the case of the Elementary and 22 years in the case of the Intermediate Examination. The scholarship in a given subject is awarded to the candidate who obtains the highest number of marks, provided that he passes in the first class. No student is allowed to hold at the same time more than one scholarship. If eligible for more than one, he elects which he will hold and the scholarship or scholarships thus set free passes to the next in order of merit, provided that he has passed in the first class. The candidate must bind himself (*a*) to prosecute his studies in the subject in which he has passed and for which he is to receive a scholarship in a recognized technical school or class in British territory approved by the Director, and (*b*) to appear at the end of the term of his scholarship for the Intermediate or the Advanced Technical Examination, as the case may be.

[9] ENDOWED SCHOLARSHIPS.—(*a*) *Under the control of the University or awarded through its agency.*—(1) The Governor scholarship: Rs. 27 a month, tenable for four years, founded by Lord Napier in 1868; funded capital, Rs. 8,300 (2) The Johnston of Carnsalloch scholarship: Rs. 20 a month if held in Madras, and Rs. 15 if held in the mufassal: tenable for two years, founded by Campbell Johnstone, Esq., in 1872; funded capital, Rs. 6,200. (3) The V. Ramaiyangar scholarship: Rs. 10 a month, tenable for two years, founded by Mr. V. Ramaiyangar in 1883; funded capital, Rs. 3,000. (4) The Mahárája of Cochin's scholarship: Rs. 30 a month, tenable for such period as may be required to enable the holder to qualify for the degree of M.B. and C.M. or of B.C.E., founded by His Highness Ráma Varma, Mahárája of Cochin, in 1870; funded capital, Rs. 10,500. (5) The Mahárája of Travancore's scholarship: Rs. 39 a month, tenable for such period as may be required to enable the holder to qualify for the degree of M.B. and C.M. or of B.C.E., founded by the Mahárája of Travancore in 1870; funded capital, Rs. 12,800. (6) The Gilchrist scholarships: Three scholarships of £200 each per annum, tenable for three years in England, awarded, one every year, to candidates who are Natives of India, on the nomination of the universities of Calcutta, Bombay, and Madras in rotation; instituted by the Gilchrist Educational Trust in England in 1891. (*b*) *Under the control of the Department of Public Instruction or awarded through its agency.*—These scholarships are (1) the Senior and the Junior Conolly scholarships, (2) The Sharpe scholarship, (3) The Thomas scholarship, (4) The Barnett scholarship, (5) The Denison scholarship, (6) The Walker scholarship, (7) Three Subramanyam scholarships in the Kumbakónam College and two Subramanyam scholarships in the Presidency College, (8) The Edward Bird scholarship, (9) The Lord Elphinstone scholarship, (10) The Ellis scholarship, (11) The Thompson scholarship, (12) The Morehead Law scholarship, (13) The Bhárati Lakshmí scholarship, (14) The Lane scholarship.

[10] PRIVATE SCHOLARSHIPS.—The following is a list of private scholarships so far as they can be ascertained:—(1) Berhampur College: The Parlákimedi Zamíndárí scholarships, two in number of the value of Rs. 10 and 15 each per mensem, open to Uriyas; one scholarship of Rs. 42 per term awarded every alternate year. (2) Vizagapatam Hindu College: Two scholarships in the name of a late Secretary of the Committee. (3) Vizianagram Mahárája's College: Sixteen scholarships. (4) Masulipatam Noble College: Scholarships awarded by the Lord Bishop and the C.M. Society. (5) London Mission High School, Vizagapatam: John Hay scholarship, Rs. 60 a year. (6) Madras Doveton Protestant College: Four scholarships of Rs. 10 per mensem each. (7) The Madras Christian College: Johnstone scholarship; Mackintosh scholarship; the Gunn scholarship; also four College scholarships. (8) Scholarships in Technical and Industrial institutions, such as the School of Music, the Anjuman, the Madras Industrial School, &c., supplemented by grants.

Institutions.	1883-84.		1884-85.		1885-86.		1886-87.		1887-88.	
	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.
Government ...	158	10,297	141	8,574	143	8,908	146	9,031	149	8,619
Board	1,281	48,298	1,317	48,816	1,414	49,584	1,424	52,346	1,506	56,380
Aided	9,127	275,343	9,172	274,339	8,897	280,530	8,212	277,924	9,829	324,040
Unaided ...	4,963	105,281	4,519	91,734	4,163	93,956	5,147	118,788	3,329	75,615
Total ...	15,529	439,219	15,149	423,463	14,617	432,978	14,929	458,089	14,813	464,654

Institutions.	1888-89.		1889-90.		1890-91.		1891-92.		1892-93.	
	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.
Government ...	170	9,183	190	10,443	221	12,152	371	19,756	392	21,766
Board	1,736	66,832	2,281	86,468	2,705	108,713	3,101	130,479	3,397	145,409
Aided	8,680	302,115	8,904	303,294	9,330	319,676	10,359	347,520	10,501	353,545
Unaided ...	4,793	114,384	4,851	116,850	6,583	142,596	5,970	131,757	6,571	147,790
Total ...	15,379	492,514	16,226	517,055	18,839	583,137	19,801	629,512	20,861	668,510

In the following statement public institutions are classified according to their educational standard during the commencement, the middle and the close of the last decade :—

Institution.	Under public management.					Under private management.					
	1882-83.	1887-88.		1892-93.		1882-83.		1887-88.		1892-93.	
	Government. Board.	Government.	Board.	Government.	Board.	Aided.	Unaided.	Aided.	Unaided.	Aided.	Unaided.
For Boys.											
Arts colleges	11	7	2	4	3	16	2	21	4	25	3
Professional colleges	3	5	...	6	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
High schools	22	1	24	4	24	52	20	67	36	77	29
Middle schools	162	6	92	40	125	302	256	279	65	227	68
Primary schools	1,284	69	1,301	145	3,208	8,713	5,845	8,762	3,169	9,482	6,262
Training schools for masters	33	4	31	30	16	3	...	3	3	7	1
For Girls.											
High schools	1	1	1	3	...	15	...	22	...	23	1
Middle schools	6	21	7	40	3	70	31	116	4	132	21
Primary schools	58	28	42	111	14	438	137	535	45	501	182
Training schools for mistresses	1	2	1	4	...	3	...	10	...	13	...
Other special schools ...	6	5	5	5	4	3	1	14	3	14	4
Total ...	1,587	149	1,506	392	3,397	9,615	6,292	9,829	3,329	10,501	6,571

Institutions for the general education of boys and girls, and the number of male and female scholars therein at the beginning and end of the decade, are compared below.

Institutions.		Number of institutions.		Number of pupils.	
		For Boys.	For Girls.	Boys.	Girls.
Arts colleges ...	1882-83 ...	29	...	2,112	...
	1892-93 ...	35	...	3,534	3
Secondary schools.	1882-83 ...	814	123	27,241	983
	1892-93 ...	594	223	57,261	19,694
Primary schools ...	1882-83 ...	15,842	633	371,566	42,433
	1892-93 ...	19,097	808	503,218	79,685

The proportion of boys and girls under instruction to the population of school-going age is shown for each district in the following statement :—

Districts.	Population of school-going age.		Pupils under instruction.		Percentage.	
	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.
Ganjám	138,488	146,032	40,102	2,290	28·9	1·6
Vizagapatam	210,087	210,362	25,057	3,340	11·9	1·6
Gódávari	154,071	157,747	32,761	8,208	21·3	5·2
Kistna	140,753	137,585	34,623	8,380	24·6	6·1
Kurnool	62,120	60,551	11,670	1,789	18·8	3·0
Nellore	110,491	109,069	18,372	4,416	16·6	4·0
Madras	33,873	34,005	28,980	9,488	85·6	27·9
Chingleput	85,917	84,623	22,867	3,817	26·6	4·6
Bellary	68,850	66,169	19,894	1,681	28·8	2·5
Anantapur	54,345	51,937	9,153	1,067	16·8	2·1
Cuddapah	96,951	93,360	15,904	1,722	16·4	1·8
North Arcot	164,181	162,892	40,129	5,170	24·4	3·2
South Arcot	161,870	162,558	34,594	3,073	21·4	1·9
Coimbatore	147,255	153,471	27,512	3,474	18·9	2·3
Nílgiris	8,423	6,546	2,869	758	33·8	11·6
Salem	144,243	150,146	22,766	3,428	15·8	2·3
Tanjore	159,907	174,310	46,929	6,333	29·4	3·6
Trichinopoly	99,535	106,372	24,191	3,197	24·3	3·0
Madura	187,735	203,525	43,424	3,190	23·1	1·6
Tinnevelly	140,020	147,394	49,811	9,995	35·6	6·8
Malabar	197,154	200,731	60,326	17,197	30·6	8·6
South Canara	76,640	81,772	17,482	2,975	22·8	3·6
Total ...	2,642,909	2,701,657	629,416	104,988	23·8	3·8

A statement showing the progress of education among the different classes of the community is appended :—

Classes of the community.	Boys.	Girls.
Europeans and Eurasians	3,870	3,282
Native Christians	34,591	17,957
Muhammadans	72,880	14,977
Bráhmans	80,092	15,971
Non-Bráhman Caste Hindus	413,577	48,955
Panchamas (Paraiyas and kindred classes)	21,939	3,691
Aborigines	2,296	93
Others	171	62
Total ...	629,416	104,988

50. *School-fees.*—The Fee Notification of 1884, which was revised in 1887, has been superseded by the Notification introduced on the 1st January 1892. The standard rates are given at foot. [11] In the Presidency College the rates are approximately 15 per cent. higher. In institutions under private management, the rates of fees and the mode of levying them are left to the discretion of the managers; but in estimating the fee-income for the purpose of passing grants under the Grant-in-aid Code, such income is calculated by applying the standard rates to the numbers on the rolls in each term, with a reduction of 10 per cent. The rules do not affect schools for native girls, schools for European and Eurasian poor and backward or indigent

[11] THE STANDARD RATES OF SCHOOL-FEES.

College department.

	Standard rates. Per term. RS.	A.	P.
M.A. Course	20	0	0
B.A. Course—			
For the whole Course	36	0	0
For the Language Branch	18	0	0
For the Optional Branch	20	0	0
F.A. Course	30	0	0

Secondary department.

	RS.	A.	P.
Sixth Form	19	0	0
Fifth Form	17	0	0
Fourth Form	15	0	0
Third Form	11	0	0
Second Form	9	0	0
First Form	7	0	0

Primary department.

	Per month. RS.	A.	P.	Per term. RS.	A.	P.
Fourth Standard	0	12	0	4	8	0
Third Standard	0	9	0	3	6	0
Second Standard	0	6	0	2	4	0
First Standard	0	4	0	1	8	0
Infant Standard	0	3	0	1	2	0

Primary English Schools.

	Per month. RS.	A.	P.
Fourth Standard	0	8	0
Third Standard	0	6	0
Second Standard	0	3	0
First Standard	0	2	0
Infant Standard	0	1	0

races or tribes, practising schools, industrial and other classes. Again in vernacular schools the levying of fees is left entirely to the controlling authority. Thus the rules are practically applicable only to institutions for boys under Government, Local Fund and Municipal management, and classed as English schools. Muhammadans, Uriyas, Paraiyas and other backward races are allowed to pay half rates. In colleges and secondary schools, fees may be paid by the term or by four equal instalments per term at the option of the student; in the former case, however, the rate is a little less in colleges. The first instalment is due not later than the third working day of each term, and the second, third and fourth instalments not later than the 15th of the three succeeding months, so that the entire fee for the term is paid within the first four months of the term. In the primary departments of superior schools, fees are collected monthly or by instalments, and in primary English schools, monthly, not later than the 15th of each month. In Government, Local Fund and Municipal schools, school-fees are credited to the respective funds and form an important contribution towards meeting the cost of education. The following table shows the receipts from this source in all public institutions for the 11 years ending the 31st March 1893 :—

Years.	Institutions managed by Government.		Institutions managed by Local and Municipal Boards.		Institutions under private management, including private schools.		Total.	
	Attendance on 31st March.	School-fees.	Attendance on 31st March.	School-fees.	Attendance on 31st March.	School-fees.	Attendance on 31st March.	School-fees.
		RS.		RS.		RS.		RS.
1882-83	12,319	1,64,200	48,124	56,725	385,881	8,22,687	446,324	10,43,612
1883-84	10,675	1,78,775	47,847	85,091	389,264	8,93,762	447,786	11,57,628
1884-85	8,969	1,51,756	48,421	1,31,310	373,461	10,00,074	430,851	12,83,140
1885-86	9,272	1,31,197	49,220	1,60,011	397,345	10,08,834	455,837	13,00,042
1886-87	9,359	1,28,841	52,018	1,76,286	427,565	11,16,987	488,942	14,22,114
1887-88	8,980	1,19,491	56,019	1,96,583	440,659	11,71,373	505,658	14,87,447
1888-89	9,548	1,22,046	66,467	2,06,423	476,137	11,97,992	552,152	15,26,461
1889-90	10,443	1,17,236	86,468	2,14,998	503,640	12,65,891	600,551	15,98,125
1890-91	12,152	1,23,402	108,601	2,18,544	523,411	12,83,778	644,164	16,25,724
1891-92	19,756	1,26,547	130,479	2,40,571	543,750	13,01,736	693,985	16,68,854
1892-93	21,766	1,47,158	145,409	2,53,372	567,229	13,27,428	734,404	17,27,958

In the subjoined statement are shown, for ten years, the total fee collections in all institutions compared with the total expenditure in the same institutions :—

Years.	Total fee receipts in all institutions.	Total expenditure on education in the same institutions.	Percentage of fees paid by pupils to the total cost of their education.
	RS.	RS.	
1883-84	11,57,628	31,81,029	36·4
1884-85	12,83,140	32,92,721	39·0
1885-86	13,00,042	36,35,354	36·0
1886-87	14,22,114	38,41,243	37·0
1887-88	14,87,447	40,21,554	37·0
1888-89	15,26,461	39,75,128	38·4
1889-90	15,98,125	44,26,881	36·1
1890-91	16,25,724	48,48,511	33·5
1891-92	16,68,854	51,43,058	32·4
1892-93	17,27,958	51,23,693	33·7

The fee receipts during the decade rose by 49 per cent. and the expenditure by 61 per cent. The following statement deals with the fee receipts in non-

Government institutions as compared with the grants-in-aid paid to them from public funds :—

Years.	Fee receipts in aided institutions under private management.	Total grants-in-aid from public funds to such institutions.	Percentage of the aggregate grant to aggregate fee receipts.
	RS.	RS.	
1882–83	8,22,687	6,70,265	81·5
1883–84	8,93,762	6,68,203	74·8
1884–85	10,00,074	7,25,838	72·5
1885–86	10,08,834	7,71,735	76·5
1886–87	11,16,987	6,73,901	60·3
1887–88	11,71,373	6,78,922	57·1
1888–89	11,97,992	6,29,896	52·6
1889–90	12,65,891	6,74,757	52·3
1890–91	12,83,778	7,97,541	62·1
1891–92	13,01,736	8,00,535	61·5
1892–93	13,27,428	8,06,627	60·8

In 1882–83 for every 100 rupees collected as fees the grant from public funds amounted to Rs. 81–8–0. In the two succeeding years, it was less than three-fourths of the fee income. The following table shows the average fee in the first and last years of the decade :—

Years.	Average fee according to the average number on the rolls.			
	Government schools.	Local Board and Municipal schools.	Schools under private management.	
			On the salary grant system.	Other.
	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.	RS. A. P.
1883–84	20 2 4	2 10 0	10 4 1	2 1 1
1892–93	7 0 6	1 12 6	2 7 2	

51. SUMMARY OF EXPENDITURE.—A summary of expenditure on colleges and schools for ten years is given below :—

Years.	Government.	Board.	Aide d.	Unaided.	Total.
	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.
1883–84	5,93,434	5,09,655	19,12,183	3,26,385	33,41,657
1884–85	5,69,655	5,90,701	20,10,965	3,04,596	34,75,917
1885–86	5,50,909	6,11,633	20,84,284	3,33,212	35,80,043
1886–87	5,58,350	6,54,681	21,44,002	3,90,688	37,47,721
1887–88	5,76,602	6,87,580	23,21,345	3,19,846	39,05,373
1888–89	5,14,202	7,08,398	21,97,617	4,27,355	38,47,572
1889–90	6,80,247	6,68,968	22,90,993	4,47,512	40,87,720
1890–91	7,72,275	7,88,321	24,46,406	4,29,651	44,36,653
1891–92	8,26,850	8,83,677	25,35,930	4,26,640	46,73,097
1892–93	9,55,572	9,12,948	26,61,270	4,59,787	49,89,577

The outlay rose during the decade from a third to half a crore of rupees, exclusive of outlay on indirect charges, such as the money spent on superintendence, schoolhouses, scholarships, and miscellaneous items. The sources from which the expenditure was met will be found in the following table :—

Sources.	1883–84.	1884–85.	1885–86.	1886–87.	1887–88.	1888–89.	1889–90.	1890–91.	1891–92.	1892–93.
	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.
Provincial ...	7,73,315	7,85,850	8,41,101	8,40,043	9,00,738	7,66,291	9,23,547	11,10,759	11,78,624	12,80,139
Local ...	5,11,430	5,22,271	5,11,466	4,66,624	4,38,981	4,61,324	4,98,700	5,79,310	6,49,754	6,70,861
Municipal ...	1,14,524	1,54,336	1,52,132	1,50,410	1,36,979	1,40,938	1,39,514	1,61,544	1,75,538	1,95,214
Fees ...	11,39,183	12,66,735	12,62,797	13,54,274	14,17,702	14,39,618	14,78,914	15,36,585	15,76,891	16,26,261
Miscellaneous	8,03,205	7,46,725	8,12,547	9,36,370	10,10,973	10,39,401	10,47,045	10,48,455	10,92,290	12,17,102
Total ...	33,41,657	34,75,917	35,80,043	37,47,721	39,05,373	38,47,572	40,87,720	44,36,653	46,73,097	49,89,577

Public funds bore the bulk of the increase during the decade and fees the larger part of the remainder. The subjoined table contains an abstract of expenditure from Provincial Funds on each grade of institution for ten years :—

Institution.	1883–84.	1884–85.	1885–86.	1886–87.	1887–88.	1888–89.	1889–90.	1890–91.	1891–92.	1892–93.
Government.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.
University Education ..	2,15,135	2,32,738	2,54,085	2,76,626	3,37,378	2,77,802	2,89,412	3,59,080	3,57,375	3,90,609
Secondary Education ...	1,83,927	1,50,879	1,02,935	70,487	52,726	45,520	1,81,463	1,83,689	1,98,160	2,17,420
Primary Education ...	16,373	18,808	25,717	25,609	28,840	32,346	28,034	31,378	45,198	66,276
Board.										
University Education...	...	...	...	2,876	2,158	3,403	5,685	4,535	4,354	4,401
Secondary Education ...	62,476	70,302	78,176	73,784	93,917	85,300	40,826	48,824	40,627	51,342
Primary Education ...	16,272	20,492	19,618	14,185	21,544	12,905	27,664	45,848	54,494	58,251
Aided.										
University Education ...	35,754	37,493	42,216	54,640	60,490	60,479	70,733	78,572	79,547	88,258
Secondary Education ...	1,74,893	1,72,222	1,98,849	1,86,573	1,74,200	1,32,054	1,63,835	2,05,217	2,07,657	2,04,360
Primary Education ...	82,425	91,371	1,01,541	87,491	88,431	70,343	89,118	94,759	1,05,372	92,095

While the Government expended about six lakhs of rupees on its own institutions, including the Medical College and schools and the Professional colleges, under departmental management, it spent as much as five lakhs on Board and Aided institutions. Grants-in-Aid from Provincial, Local and Municipal Funds for ten years are shown in the following table :—

Funds.	1883–84.	1884–85.	1885–86.	1886–87.	1887–88.	1888–89.	1889–90.	1890–91.	1891–92.	1892–93.
	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.	RS.
Provincial ...	3,47,913	4,10,440	4,73,904	4,47,454	4,89,405	4,17,759	5,02,538	6,40,341	6,33,029	6,15,727
Local ...	2,83,095	2,76,938	2,59,100	1,99,100	1,97,346	2,05,533	2,02,257	2,18,520	2,24,358	2,32,505
Municipal ...	74,926	1,01,677	1,04,881	91,217	90,146	95,435	88,751	99,190	96,401	1,01,852
Total ...	7,05,934	7,89,055	8,37,885	7,37,771	7,76,897	7,18,727	7,93,546	9,58,051	9,53,788	9,50,084

The amount of grants given advanced during the period by about three lakhs of rupees. Salary grant from Provincial Funds to schools under private management are detailed below :—

Years.	Amount.	Years.	Amount.
			RS.
1883–84	1,67,378	1888–89	1,68,396
1884–85	1,71,781	1889–90	1,92,060
1885–86	1,92,634	1890–91	2,20,072
1886–87	1,99,179	1891–92	2,38,123
1887–88	1,84,287	1892–93	2,57,820

The following table details the results grants from Provincial, Local and Municipal Funds :—

Years.	Provincial Funds.	Local Funds.	Municipal Funds.
	RS.	RS.	RS.
1883–84	1,35,732	......	......
1884–85	1,55,476	2,17,796	59,591
1885–86	1,45,389	2,14,155	62,216
1886–87	1,22,167	1,66,052	53,251
1887–88	1,29,465	1,67,212	52,825
1888–89	93,982	1,69,003	55,712
1889–90	1,36,329	1,79,928	55,186
1890–91	1,65,235	2,04,212	65,020
1891–92	1,63,719	2,20,040	64,660
1892–93	1,40,600	2,31,342	77,718

52. SCHOOL-BUILDINGS.—An Educational Building Fund was originally formed from the surplus balance of the Dévasthánam funds. Under the orders of the Court of Directors, this amount was set apart for educational buildings, and was subsequently considerably augmented by a transfer of the unexpended portion of the annual grant of Rs. 50,000 given for native education from 1828–29 to 1854–55. A four per cent. treasury note was issued in the same year for ten lakhs of rupees, afterwards reduced in 1868 to eight lakhs. The interest upon this note, after meeting charges incurred in connection with educational buildings, was credited to the Educational Building Fund and continued to accumulate until July 1861, when the Secretary of State directed that no further additions should be made by the accumulation of interest, and that, whenever the building charges fell below the interest, the balance should be applied towards defraying general educational expenditure. Sums raised by private contributions and subscriptions for the construction of school-houses were credited to this fund. All charges on account of educational buildings were met from this fund until 31st March 1884; they were divided into charges on account of original buildings and repairs to Government colleges and schools and building grants to aided colleges and schools. The charges latterly greatly exceeded the annual receipts from interest and local contributions, and it was necessary from time to time to divert considerable sums from the capital. The erection of the Presidency College, the Senate House and the Kumbakónam College largely contributed to the depletion of this fund, which was reduced on the 31st March 1884 to Rs. 2,178-9-1. The fund was wound up at the close of the year, the balance having been credited to Provincial Funds, from which all building charges are since being met. From 1st April 1884 to 31st March 1892, Rs. 5,52,881 were spent on Government educational buildings and Rs. 2,51,448 as building grants, as shown below:—

Years.	Building grant.	Expenditure on educational buildings.
	RS.	RS.
1884–85	19,067	34,771
1885–86	30,885	40,168
1886–87	24,416	95,954
1887–88	44,339	67,155
1888–89	24,848	57,062
1889–90	19,833	78,931
1890–91	54,439	40,199
1891–92	33,621	1,38,641
Total ...	2,51,448	5,52,881

In 1892–93, Rs. 31,483 were paid as building grants.

CHAPTER IX.

LITERARY SOCIETIES.

1. Excluding sectarian institutes and associations, such as missionary and theosophical societies, Brahmo Samaj and similar societies, which are mainly intended to advance the interests of particular religionists or of particular classes of individuals, 141 literary societies or reading-rooms were borne on the returns of the Educational department for 1892–93. The total number of members or visitors connected with these societies was 15,542 adult males, 233 adult females and 5,264 juveniles. Their total cost during the year amounted to Rs. 58,573, of which Rs. 9,693 were met from Public funds, Rs. 10,542 from endowments, and Rs. 38,338 from donations and subscriptions.

2. Government Central Museum and Library.—The Madras Government Central Museum, still so called though there are at present no other museums, has for its chief object to encourage a taste and afford means for popular instruction in Indian Geology, Botany and Zoology. It is also intended to develope the resources of the country by exhibiting raw products, to provide facilities for the scientific teacher or student of natural history or forestry, and to illustrate the ethnology and archæology of the Presidency, and the manners and customs of its aboriginal inhabitants. The museum possesses a library, open to the public daily, containing scientific and other books. The museum is divided into the following galleries or sections:—*Mineral Gallery.*—Here are exhibited minerals, rock specimens and fossils of the Madras Presidency arranged in scientific order; also a collection of European fossils for the use of students of geology. *Economic Gallery.*—This gallery contains chiefly economic products derived from the vegetable kingdom. *Mammal and Bird Gallery.*—65 species of mammals and 14 species of birds, all from Southern India, were represented in 1893. Adjoining it are the reptile and skeleton galleries. *Fish Gallery.*—Here the salt-water fish of the South Indian seas and the rest of the marine fauna of Southern India and the neighbouring seas are exhibited. The *Sculpture Gallery* contains the ancient sculptures, and adjoining it is a gallery of antiquities. The *Art Gallery* contains works of indigenous Indian art and ethnological objects. There is also a herbarium and a collection of ancient coins. The museum is open to the public every week-day free of charge and a special arrangement exists for the admission of 'gosha' women. It was visited by over 300,000 persons during each of the past five years. A number of catalogues and other interesting publications have been issued in connection with the museum and popular lectures are given from time to time on subjects of scientific and general interest.

3. The Madras School Book and Literature Society.—The most enlightened development of vernacular publication is shown in the work of the society first known as the Madras School Book Society, then as the Madras School Book and Vernacular Literature Society and now styled the Madras School Book and Literature Society. It was organized in the year 1820 about two years previous to the earliest measures of the Madras Government in the Department of Public Instruction initiated by Sir Thomas Munro. Its first object was the provision of suitable school-books of instruction for the use of native schools and seminaries, both English and Vernacular; and with this object it began the purchase, preparation and publication of useful works to be supplied to them either gratuitously or at a cheap rate. In this work it continued for some time until 1865 when its work was taken up by other and more recent agencies, especially the Government Department of Public Instruction and the Christian Vernacular Education Society. It then directed its efforts principally to the creation and diffusion of a sound and

instructive vernacular literature. The results of the latter are various publications in Tamil, Telugu, Hindustání, Malayálam and Canarese. The Tamil and Telugu 'Janavinodini,' a monthly magazine of instruction and amusement, continued to be published till the year 1890. A Telugu dictionary, undertaken on a large scale, is now complete and is for sale at the Society's depôt. From the commencement the depository of this society has been in the Old College, Nungambákam, Madras. At first the society was maintained by subscriptions and donations, mostly from Europeans employed in the service of Government. At a later stage it received an annual grant from Government which was discontinued from 1880. For several years past it has been self-supporting. On the abolition of the Government Central Book Depôt, it undertook the custody and sale of Government school-books. This agreement terminated on the 31st March 1889. The society is about to be registered under Act XXI of 1860.

4. Registered Literary Societies.—Sixteen other institutions have, up to date, been registered under the Indian Companies Act of 1860, the most important of them being (1) the Madras Literary Society and Auxiliary of the Royal Asiatic Society, (2) the Agri-Horticultural Society, (3) the Madras Progressive Union and (4) the Muhammadan Public Library, all located in the City of Madras. *Madras Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society.*—The Madras Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society was established in 1817 for the investigation and encouragement of science and literature. The society owns a very extensive and useful library, containing over 31,000 volumes, and publishes periodically a journal or a literary magazine. The number of members at the close of the past year was 103 and the number of subscribers 116; 256 books were added during the year, 143 of them being works of fiction and 113 general works. The list of works presented during the year comprises 10 books from the Government of India, 11 from the Government of Madras, 1 from the Bombay Government and 58 from foreign and other institutions. Among others, 15 European periodicals are now taken by the society. *The Agri-Horticultural Society.*—The Agri-Horticultural Society, Madras, was established in 1835 chiefly through the exertions of the late Dr. Wright, formerly a Surgeon in the Madras Army. The Governor of Madras is the President and Patron of the society. The general affairs are managed by an Honorary Secretary assisted by a committee. There is also a Botanical Library attached, to which access is had by subscribers. The society contains 113 members on its rolls. The total expenditure in 1892–93 amounted to Rs. 11,000, of which Rs. 4,000 were paid by Government. *The Madras Progressive Union.*—The Madras Progressive Union was established in April 1880. It conducts weekly debates on useful and important subjects. The union has a library and also maintains a poor school with 300 pupils. The Rájá of Ramnad is the Patron and there are 27 members on the rolls. The charges of the institution during the last official year amounted to Rs. 6,894, of which Rs. 3,000 were borne from endowments. *The Muhammadan Public Library.*—The Madras Muhammadan Public Library was established in 1850 with liberal assistance from the local Government, the late Nawáb of the Carnatic and the Muhammadan community generally. There are 1,500 books of the Hindustání, Persian, Arabic and Turkish languages, besides about 500 English books. The library receives from Government Rs. 35 a month, and has besides an income of Rs. 28 a month from landed property. There are 72 subscribers. The Patron is the Prince of Arcot.

A list of the other registered institutions in the Presidency is given below:—

Date of establishment.	Name of institution.	Object of institution.	Number of members or visitors.	Total expenditure in 1892–93.
				RS.
1852	Salem Literary Society ...	Intellectual, moral and social advancement.	83	1,031
1857	D.P.W. Library, Bezwada ...	Newspaper reading, games and debates.	28	500
1880	Erode Reading-room	Intellectual, social and moral advancement.	69	331
1884	Students, Literary Association, Coimbatore.	Do. ...	152	630

Date of establishment.	Name of institution.	Object of institution.	Number of members or visitors.	Total expenditure in 1892–93.
				RS.
1887	Public Reading-room and Library, Tenkási.	Intellectual, social and moral advancement.	844	280
1888	The Vannyakulakshatriya Sangam, Madras.	Intellectual, social and moral advancement of Vanniyas.	296	1,453
1889	Association of Women Teachers, Madras.	To stimulate interest in, and promote a knowledge of, the art of teaching; to encourage sociability and co-operation among the members of the profession.	85	191
1889	Karúr Jubilee Reading-room ...	Intellectual, social and moral advancement.	270	131
1890	Board Reading-room, Kulittalai...	Do. ...	75	380
1890	Hindu Library Society, Vayalpad.	Promotion of mutual enlightenment and mutual brotherhood.	62	139
1891	Madras School of Music Society.	To promote the study of music.	242	6,970
1892	Town Hall, Trichinopoly ...	To diffuse education among the public.	105	665

5. Unregistered Literary Societies.—Among the unregistered societies which do not submit returns, the following deserve special mention:—(1) *The Madras Graduates' Association* established in 1885. The object of the association is the advancement of education (*a*) by considering all important questions that may come up before the University of Madras and communicating the views entertained thereon by the association to the University authorities; (*b*) by reviewing from time to time the state of education in the province and by formulating proposals to the proper authorities to remove defects or to effect improvements; (*c*) by furthering the interests of aided education in the Presidency, and stimulating the growth of local enterprise and effort for the promotion of education; (*d*) by using every means in its power to place female education on a sound and progressive basis; (*e*) by examining the text-books in use in schools and colleges and pronouncing on their fitness or unfitness, and endeavouring to bring out suitable books for use in Primary and Middle schools, especially in the Vernacular languages; (*f*) by arranging for the delivery of lectures on scientific, historical and other objects, and forming a library and reading-room in connection with the association. (2) *The Triplicane Literary Society* was reorganized in 1874. The object of the institution is the mental, moral and physical improvement of its members, and the social and political advancement of the people of India. (3) *The Hindu Literary Union* instituted in 1891 for the mental and moral culture of its members. In connection with the union, a Phonographic school is also maintained. (4) *The Mailapur Athenæum Reading-room, Library and Literary Society.*—The objects of this association are the discussion of questions of public interest with a view to take, whenever necessary, any measures calculated to promote such interests, and the providing of its members with journals, periodicals and books. The library consists of 534 volumes of standard works. Eight periodicals are now subscribed for. (5) *The Tiruvaítswaranpeta Literary Society* is intended for the mental and moral improvement of its members. (6) *The Madras Progressive Dramatic Association* was established in 1887. The object of the association is the development of the moral, mental and elocutional faculties of its members by studying various English dramatic works, especially those of Shakespeare, and from time to time giving public representations of the plays studied. The association is open to college students. (7) *The Ádi Drávida Jana Sabha* established in 1892. The aim of the Sabha is to raise, by every possible means, the social, intellectual and moral status of the Dravidian community.

CHAPTER X.

ECCLESIASTICAL JURISDICTION.

1. Introduction.—The Government maintains for Protestant officials an ecclesiastical establishment proper. At the head of the Church of England portion of the establishment is the Bishop of Madras; at the head of the Church of Scotland portion, the Senior Scotch Chaplain. The services of this establishment are extended to non-official Europeans and others resident within the Presidency. The Government also pays the Roman Catholic Archbishop of Madras for a purpose hereafter mentioned; and pays or subsidizes Roman Catholic priests and Wesleyan ministers to minister to the troops in military stations. It likewise subsidizes missionaries and other clergymen ministering to Europeans in stations not served by chaplains. With the Bishop in Travancore and Cochin it has communications and makes a grant for a clergyman at Trívandrum with charge of Quilon. The Government builds, furnishes, and repairs churches for the use of soldiers, both Protestant and Roman Catholic, or pays for their sittings and makes grants for other than military churches. Quarterly returns of baptisms, marriages and burials are sent by the clergy through the Registrar of the Diocese to Government. Quarterly returns of baptisms and burials also are collected from dissenting ministers and returns of marriages from those who are legally authorized to solemnize marriages.

2. Protestant Establishments in the Presidency.—By the Statute 53 Geo. III, Chap. 155 (1812–13), provision was made for the appointment of a single Bishop for the whole of India, and the Sovereign was empowered to grant to the Bishop such ecclesiastical jurisdiction and the exercise of such episcopal functions as His Majesty might think necessary for the administration of holy ceremonies and for the superintendence and good government of the ministers of the Church Establishment. Under the authority of this Statute letters-patent for the Bishopric of Calcutta were issued under date the 2nd of May 1814, establishing the See of Calcutta subordinate to the Archi-episcopal See of Canterbury, and constituting the Archdeaconries of Calcutta, Madras and Bombay. The Statutes 3 and 4 Will. IV, Chap. 85 (1833), subsequently empowered the Sovereign to found and constitute the Bishoprics of Madras and Bombay, and constituted the Bishop of Calcutta Metropolitan Bishop in India. On the 13th June 1835 the Bishopric of Madras including Ceylon was accordingly constituted by letters-patent, leaving the metropolitan jurisdiction only with the Bishop of Calcutta; Ceylon was however severed from the See of Madras in 1845. The jurisdiction of the Bishop of Calcutta has also been further curtailed by the subsequent formation of the Bishoprics of Lahore, Rangoon and Lucknow. The Statutes 3 and 4 Will. IV, Chap. 85, also provided for the appointment of two Chaplains of the Church of Scotland to be inducted and ordained by the Presbytery of Edinburgh according to the forms and solemnities used in the Church of Scotland, and to be subject to the spiritual and ecclesiastical jurisdiction in all things of the Presbytery of Edinburgh. The law specially affecting the Church of England is found in the following enactments:—(1) Bishop—53 Geo. III, c. 155, s. 53 (A.D. 1812–13); an Act for continuing in the East India Company for a further term the possession of the British territories in India, together with certain exclusive privileges; for establishing further regulations for the Government of the said territories, and the better administration of justice within the same, and for regulating the trade to and from the places within the limits of the said Company's charter—3 and 4 Wm. IV, c. 85, ss. 89–100 (A.D. 1833); an Act for effecting an arrangement with the East India Company, and for the better government of His Majesty's Indian territories, till the thirtieth day of April 1854—

5 and 6 Vict., c. 119 (A.D. 1842); an Act to enable Her Majesty to grant furlough allowances to the Bishops of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay who shall return to Europe for a limited period after residing in India a sufficient time to entitle them to the highest scale of pension—15 and 16 Vict., c. 52, s. 2 (A.D. 1852); an Act to enable Colonial and other Bishops to perform certain Episcopal functions, under commission from Bishops of England and Ireland—16 and 17 Vict., c. 49 (A.D. 1853); an Act to extend the provisions of an Act of the fifteenth and sixteenth years of Her present Majesty, entitled "an Act to enable Colonial and other Bishops to perform certain Episcopal functions, under commission from Bishops of England and Ireland"—34 and 35 Vict., c. 62 (A.D. 1871); an Act to enable Her Majesty to make regulations relative to the leave of absence of Indian Bishops on furlough and medical certificates—37 and 38 Vict., c. 77, ss. 7, 8, 12, 13 (A.D. 1874); an Act respecting Colonial and certain other clergy—43 Vict., c. 3, s. 3. (A.D. 1880); an Act to amend the Law relating to the salaries and allowances of certain officers in India; and for other purposes relating thereto. (2) Archdeacon—53 Geo. III, c. 155, ss. 49, 50, 89 (A.D. 1812–13), (see above)—4 Geo. IV, c. 71, ss. 3 and 4 (A.D. 1823); an Act for defraying the charge of retiring pay, pensions, and other expenses of that nature of His Majesty's forces serving in India; for establishing the pensions of the Bishop, Archdeacons, and Judges; for regulating ordinations; and for establishing a Court of Judicature at Bombay—3 and 4 Wm. IV, c. 85, ss. 98–101 (A.D. 1833), (see above)—43 Vict., c. 3, s. 3 (A.D. 1880), (see above). (3) Chaplains—4 Geo. IV, c. 71, s. 4 (A.D. 1823), (see above). (4) Church of England Clergy generally—59 Geo. III, c. 60, s. 1 (A.D. 1819); an Act to permit the Archbishops of Canterbury and York and the Bishop of London for the time being to admit persons into Holy Orders specially for the Colonies—37 and 38 Vict., c. 77 (A.D. 1874), (see above)—Act XV of 1872, ss. 5, 10, 11, 28 and 29, The Indian Christian Marriage Act, modified 1891. (5) Church of Scotland Clergy generally—3 and 4 Wm. IV, c. 85, s. 102 (see above)—Act XV of 1872, ss. 3, 5, 31, The Indian Christian Marriage Act, modified 1891.

3. The Madras Ecclesiastical establishment proper consists:—(*a*) of a Bishop, an Archdeacon (who must be one of the Chaplains and is appointed by the Bishop), 36 Chaplains (including the Archdeacon), and a Registrar, (*b*) of 4 Chaplains of the Church of Scotland.

The Bishop superintends the spiritual work of the diocese; holds confirmations; ordains, licenses, and exercises jurisdiction over the clergy; visits all the stations at which clergy are located and many of the outstations, as a rule once in three years; inspects their work in hospitals and schools; inspects the registers and other church books; recommends to Government the appointments and transfers of Chaplains; reports upon the advisability of proposals for new churches, improvements in churches, changes suggested in any of the ecclesiastical arrangements; consecrates new churches and cemeteries. The Archdeacon attends more particularly to the details of church establishments, church furniture, cemeteries, repairs, budgets; and communicates with the Government on these subjects. The Chaplains are divided into three classes, senior, junior and probationers. The period of probation is three years. Promotion from the junior class to the senior is attained upon the completion of 10 years' service in the junior class. The term of service for a full pension is 20 years from the date of becoming a junior Chaplain; 17 of these years must have been spent in actual service. Smaller pensions are granted on retirement enforced through sickness. Retirement is compulsory on the completion of 25 years with rare exceptions under special circumstances. One of the Chaplains is appointed by the Bishop to be his Domestic Chaplain. The others are appointed by the Government to the charge of stations, 30 in number, counting each sub-division of a station as one. Every Chaplain at a station in which there are European troops visits the schools and hospitals under stated rules. To several stations are attached outstations; these are visited periodically by the Chaplain of the station.

The Senior Chaplain of the Church of Scotland is the channel of communication between Government and the Scotch Chaplains. The rules regarding service, furlough and pension are the same as those for the Church of England Chaplains.

4. Besides the Chaplains there are other European and Eurasian clergymen, who are either in receipt of grants-in-aid from Government, or are at any rate under the spiritual direction of the Bishop of Madras. Some of these minister to European congregations which are not entitled to the services of a resident Government Chaplain, and some are missionaries. The former receive their salaries either from one of the two societies for providing additional clergy, or from local or other private contributions, or from both; the Government in all cases allows a grant-in-aid. The missionaries, as such, are not connected with Government, but are wholly maintained by the two missionary societies, namely the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel and the Church Missionary Society. Native clergymen, Tamil and Telugu, constitute a third and continually growing class. In the superintendence of missions and the native church the Bishop has had no episcopal assistance since early in 1891, but hopes before long to be relieved more or less completely of the charge of Tinnevelly and Madura. The affairs of the native churches, in matters not spiritual, are managed by councils composed chiefly of native clergymen and laity, and by the committees of the missionary societies. The councils are of two kinds, viz., the smaller or district councils, and the provincial or central.

5. At every station where there is Government church property two gentlemen appointed by the Government to be Lay Trustees form, with the Chaplain as president, a church committee. The duties of Lay Trustees are in many respects similar to those of churchwardens in England. They also conduct Divine service in the absence of the Chaplain. The churches for European congregations are, with rare exceptions, the property of Government. One of the churches in Madras is the cathedral of the Madras Diocese. Two Chaplains are assigned to it. But there is no chapter; nor are there any distinctively cathedral officers.

6. On the 30th August 1893 the total number of Church of England clergymen in the Diocese of Madras was 261, of whom 36 were Government Chaplains; 17 were Europeans or Eurasians employed in education, or ministering to English congregations, or retired; 43 were European or Eurasian missionaries; 156 were native pastors or assistant missionaries; and 5 were native clergymen otherwise employed, or retired. By the last returns the number of European and Eurasian Christian members of the Church of England was 27,148. The returns from the mission stations of the two principal missionary societies are given below.[1]

7. Roman Catholic Establishments in the Presidency.—The Roman Catholic establishments of Southern India are to be classed as missionary in the sense of not being State establishments. Until 1886 there were no Roman Catholic Bishops' sees in the Presidency, but Vicariates Apostolic were created by the Pope, and the Archbishop of Goa was given extraordinary jurisdiction beyond Portuguese territory. The Vicariates were presided over by titular Bishops. In 1886 however the establishment of the Hierarchy in India was proclaimed by His Holiness Pope Leo the XIII in his Apostolic letter 'Humanæ Salutis Auctor,' dated 1st September 1886. By this bull the pre-existing Apostolic Vicariates were constituted episcopal churches and from among the new dioceses Verapoli, Madras and Pondicherry were elevated to the honour of archiepiscopal dignity. The Roman Catholic Archbishop of Madras receives a stipend of Rs. 500 per mensem from the Madras Government for furnishing ecclesiastical returns. The most recent statistics available regarding the Roman Catholic dioceses in Southern India are

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[1] Statistics of Mission Stations.

Society for the Propagation of the Gospel.

Number of villages in which there are Christians	1,060	Number of Christians	48,038
Do. of clergy	86	Catechumens	12,597
Do. of catechists	152	Grant from England (which does not include special funds)	Rs. 1,96,023-5-7
Other agents	600		
Baptisms during the year	2,075		

Church Missionary Society.

Number of villages in which there are Christians	1,337	Number of Christians	58,049
Do. of clergy	110	Catechumens	8,272
Lay agents (men)	793	Grant from England (which does not include special funds)	Rs. 2,66,007-6-10
Do. (women)	204		

given below.[2] There are no legal enactments in this country concerning the Roman Catholic church except incidentally.

8. TRAVANCORE BISHOPRIC.—The ecclesiastical supervision of the Church of England in Travancore and Cochin, formerly exercised by the Bishop of Calcutta and since 1835 by Bishops of Madras with the tacit consent of the native rulers, was transferred in 1880 to a Bishop consecrated for the purpose. Under the Act 5 of Victoria, commonly called the Jerusalem Bishopric Act, a Royal License was issued, dated 16th of July 1879, to the Archbishop of Canterbury, authorizing him to consecrate. The consecration took place on the 25th of July 1879, and on the 27th of January 1880 the Bishop arrived in India. The number of Native Christians then transferred from the superintendence of the Bishop of Madras was 16,000 baptized and 2,100 under instruction. The first Bishop retired in 1889 and was succeeded in 1890 by the present Bishop. The number of baptized persons in the Diocese is now 25,270 and of persons under instruction 3,471, of European clergy 12, of native 26.

[2] STATISTICS OF THE ROMAN CATHOLIC DIOCESES IN SOUTHERN INDIA.

Dioceses.	Inhabitants.	Catholics.	Churches and chapels.	Elementary schools.	Children.	Seminaries.	Students.	European Missionaries.	Native Priests.	Orphanages.	Number of orphans.	Members of religious communities.	
												Men.	Women.
Coimbatore	2,028,021	31,307	88	51	1,370	1	11	30	6	5	316	4	77
Madras	7,075,784	45,301	140	65	4,732	1	30	26	14	5	450	16	90
Mangalore	2,500,000	72,647	68	42	2,993	1	33	24	38	5	250	49	77
Mysore	5,000,000	34,642	82	40	1,818	1	16	38	10	12	468	2	136
Pondicherry	7,500,000	217,562	630	131	7,412	1	47	89	36	16	387	...	416
Quilon	1,200,000	86,000	165	80	3,555	1	23	17	26	3	210	...	21
Trichinopoly	5,600,000	183,900	772	38	9,720	1	32	93	39	7	400	12	155
Vizagapatam	10,423,367	10,871	58	33	1,197	1	3	17	2	5	240	8	53
Verapoli	1,200,000	55,000	43	135	5,000	1	16	13	56	3	87	26	19
Trichúr (Vic. Ap.) ...	867,341	102,000	105	190	8,403	1	13	1	116	...	...	23	7
Kóttayam (do.) ...	613,422	107,006	152	200	...	2	150	1	271	...	...	69	27

The statistics for the Archdiocese of Goa and the Suffragan See of Damaun, Cochin and Melliapur are not included in the above summary.

APPENDIX.

APPENDIX.

Population of the Madras Presidency according to the Census of 1891.

District or State.	Inhabited Houses.	Population.							Number per square mile.	Classification of Population.				
		Adults (above fifteen years of age).		Children (under fifteen years of age).		Age not stated.		Total.		Christians.			Hindus.	Musalmáns.
	Total.	Men.	Women.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.			Europeans.	Eurasians.	Natives.		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Ganjám	314,379	427,800	491,039	336,302	333,689	318	329	1,589,477	325	195	198	1,899	1,534,086	5,443
Vizagapatam	413,605	559,502	601,450	400,594	380,982	318	365	1,943,211	421	338	679	1,997	1,919,070	21,058
Gódávari	368,185	552,383	599,920	409,663	389,060	315	304	1,951,645	407	346	555	7,721	1,903,562	39,395
Kistna	339,967	567,618	556,017	370,470	360,938	264	275	1,855,582	221	246	312	67,966	1,678,333	108,567
Nellore	273,815	466,843	464,018	269,383	262,754	382	356	1,463,736	167	135	244	46,797	1,337,979	78,185
Cuddapah	270,121	425,254	409,471	220,856	216,027	230	234	1,272,072	146	131	224	9,370	1,142,727	119,564
Kurnool	172,168	267,489	261,473	146,451	141,988	196	214	817,811	109	69	82	22,584	697,616	97,416
Bellary	170,929	286,817	273,273	172,009	167,649	176	202	900,126	151	1,124	712	3,447	807,597	85,770
Anantapur	140,199	233,086	219,490	129,095	126,654	119	105	708,549	134	102	303	1,378	655,105	51,333
Madras	60,103	149,713	151,588	76,043	75,055	61	58	452,518	15,604	4,229	11,943	23,570	358,997	53,184
Chingleput	177,394	343,778	335,917	228,930	228,132	68	103	1,136,928	400	1,505	1,527	15,939	1,091,376	26,236
North Arcot	344,091	674,180	670,782	420,126	414,915	233	251	2,180,487	286	227	675	14,101	2,061,105	96,238
Salem	401,081	577,300	616,808	384,193	384,002	128	160	1,962,591	261	319	488	17,661	1,882,409	61,505
Coimbatore	424,564	582,214	626,080	399,374	396,953	112	106	2,004,839	255	235	694	14,637	1,945,010	43,947
Nílgiris	21,200	38,286	26,749	17,861	16,888	8	5	99,797	104	1,790	1,236	8,600	83,531	4,600
South Arcot	314,343	658,902	665,274	420,078	418,264	154	179	2,162,851	415	160	356	54,325	2,043,679	58,661
Tanjore	406,329	646,937	743,771	419,034	418,213	74	85	2,228,114	601	303	741	84,327	2,022,300	119,864
Trichinopoly	240,816	406,214	451,358	257,236	257,639	118	152	1,372,717	378	265	726	69,410	1,264,037	38,271
Madura	506,312	753,098	863,116	498,076	493,232	394	488	2,608,404	296	268	374	99,789	2,347,697	160,144
Tinnevelly	421,828	566,282	619,379	367,006	363,032	179	217	1,916,095	356	227	166	145,569	1,674,150	95,951
Malabar	452,060	767,849	816,571	546,292	521,418	220	215	2,652,565	475	1,064	4,193	42,374	1,834,298	769,857
South Canara	189,584	298,355	334,828	212,438	210,195	144	121	1,056,081	271	153	204	70,902	862,573	111,983
Total ...	**6,423,073**	**10,249,900**	**10,798,372**	**6,701,510**	**6,577,679**	**4,211**	**4,524**	**34,336,196**	**281**	**13,431**	**26,632**	**824,363**	**31,147,237**	**2,247,172**
Agency ... { Ganjám	71,492	86,979	80,455	65,955	62,399	5,902	5,636	307,326	88	7	1	513	86,774	71
Agency ... { Vizagapatam ...	189,085	198,416	190,839	126,591	120,066	115,155	108,714	859,781	68	9	1	129	639,191	1,496
Agency ... { Gódávari	26,340	37,615	36,219	27,152	26,136	9	6	127,137	42	15	8	419	125,043	1,647
Total, Agency Tracts ...	**286,917**	**323,010**	**307,513**	**219,698**	**208,601**	**121,066**	**114,356**	**1,294,244**	**68**	**31**	**10**	**1,061**	**851,008**	**3,214**
Total, British Territory ...	**6,709,990**	**10,572,910**	**11,105,885**	**6,921,208**	**6,786,280**	**125,277**	**118,880**	**35,630,440**	**252**	**13,462**	**26,642**	**825,424**	**31,998,245**	**2,250,386**
Feudatory States. { Travancore ...	516,536	828,189	802,660	462,226	464,661	...	...	2,557,736	380	360	532	526,019	1,871,864	158,823
Feudatory States. { Cochin	130,901	217,173	218,859	144,657	142,077	74	66	722,906	531	38	270	173,523	501,544	46,389
Feudatory States. { Pudukkóttai ...	69,691	108,664	125,853	69,232	69,315	16	16	373,096	339	15	16	13,782	347,978	11,304
Feudatory States. { Banganapalle ...	7,420	12,363	11,959	5,660	5,506	3	5	35,496	139	...	...	57	28,344	7,094
Feudatory States. { Sandur	2,418	3,649	3,664	2,070	2,005	...	...	11,388	71	5	12	22	9,481	1,868
Total, Feudatories ...	**726,966**	**1,170,038**	**1,162,995**	**683,845**	**683,564**	**93**	**87**	**3,700,622**	**385**	**418**	**830**	**713,403**	**2,759,211**	**225,478**
Grand Total ...	**7,436,956**	**11,742,948**	**12,268,880**	**7,605,053**	**7,469,844**	**125,370**	**118,967**	**39,331,062**	**261**	**13,880**	**27,472**	**1,538,827**	**34,757,456**	**2,475,864**

APPENDIX—*continued.*

Population of the Madras Presidency according to the Census of 1891—*continued.*

District or State.	Classification of Population—*cont.* Buddhists and Jains.	Classification of Population—*cont.* Others.	Occupation. Male agriculturists.	Occupation. Male non-agriculturists.	Prevailing languages.
	16	17	18	19	20
Ganjám	9	47,647	426,855	335,102	1, Uriya (797,132); 2, Telugu (722,287); 3, Savara (40,192); 4, Khond (17,490); 5, Hindustání (8,373).
Vizagapatam	11	58	581,521	378,536	1, Telugu (1,881,678); 2, Uriya (27,916); 3, Gadaba (15,602); 4, Hindustání (11,071).
Gódávari	41	25	587,399	374,630	1, Telugu (1,914,769); 2, Hindustání (27,913).
Kistna	14	144	572,231	365,865	1, Telugu (1,739,326); 2, Hindustání (95,663); 3, Yerukala (9,900).
Nellore	11	385	396,549	339,575	1, Telugu (1,364,445); 2, Hindustání (64,692); 3, Tamil (26,984).
Cuddapah	29	27	414,440	231,672	1, Telugu (1,139,891); 2, Hindustání (96,723); 3, Canarese (10,617); 4, Tamil (6,262); 5, Yerukala (5,989); 6, Maráthí (5,747).
Kurnool	39	5	247,811	165,926	1, Telugu (717,140); 2, Hindustání (78,183); 3, Canarese (8,532).
Bellary	1,463	13	307,229	151,146	1, Canarese (518,585); 2, Telugu (267,327); 3, Hindustání (74,520); 4, Tamil (11,792); 5, Maráthí (10,679); 6, Lambadi (7,099).
Anantapur	313	15	224,173	137,920	1, Telugu (570,921); 2, Canarese (79,486); 3, Hindustání (41,304); 4, Maráthí (5,840).
Madras	410	185	9,987	215,254	1, Tamil (270,970); 2, Telugu (103,423); 3, Hindustání (50,057); 4, English (16,071); 5, Maráthí (5,392).
Chingleput	326	19	354,812	217,755	1, Tamil (863,094); 2, Telugu (242,737); 3, Hindustání (19,266); 4, Canarese (5,070).
North Arcot	8,130	11	771,766	322,470	1, Tamil (1,214,930); 2, Telugu (852,880); 3, Hindustání (65,410); 4, Canarese (31,483); 5, Maráthí (8,794).
Salem	208	1	653,850	307,525	1, Tamil (1,395,130); 2, Telugu (360,915); 3, Canarese (139,414); 4, Hindustání (47,240); 5, Maráthí (8,631); 6, Patnúl (7,548).
Coimbatore	305	11	583,209	398,305	1, Tamil (1,297,174); 2, Telugu (440,307); 3, Canarese (238,114); 4, Hindustání (21,693).
Nílgiris	4	36	32,882	23,252	1, Badaga (30,633); 2, Tamil (28,038); 3, Canarese (14,125); 4, Malayálam (8,775).
South Arcot	5,652	18	774,384	304,568	1, Tamil (1,882,159); 2, Telugu (227,056); 3, Hindustání (34,684); 4, Canarese (13,089).
Tanjore	570	9	670,707	395,195	1, Tamil (2,095,135); 2, Telugu (80,630); 3, Patnúl (18,069); 4, Maráthí (13,634); 5, Hindustání (11,846); 6, Canarese (6,539).
Trichinopoly	4	4	468,986	194,400	1, Tamil (1,157,689); 2, Telugu (161,342); 3, Canarese (29,162); 4, Hindustání (15,947).
Madura	85	47	831,420	419,490	1, Tamil (2,081,102); 2, Telugu (367,613); 3, Canarese (104,641); 4, Patnúl (35,197); 5, Hindustání (14,424).
Tinnevelly	30	2	567,268	365,934	1, Tamil (1,627,915); 2, Telugu (259,048); 3, Canarese (14,776); 4, Hindustání (7,508).
Malabar	605	174	737,859	575,907	1, Malayálam (2,484,974); 2, Tamil (106,399); 3, Telugu (20,309); 4, Canarese (14,958); 5, Hindustání (7,424).
South Canara	10,202	64	314,639	196,000	1, Tulu (460,209); 2, Canarese (213,551); 3, Malayálam (191,696); 4, Konkaní (130,191); 5, Maráthí (34,925); 6, Hindustání (16,602).
Total ...	**28,461**	**48,900**	**10,529,977**	**6,416,427**	
Agency ... Ganjám	...	219,960	126,425	31,547	1, Khond (148,891); 2, Uriya (80,994); 3, Savara (61,056).
Agency ... Vizagapatam ...	...	218,955	202,522	80,012	1, Uriya (382,685); 2, Telugu (113,052); 3, Khond (24,509); 4, Porojá (15,037); 5, Gadaba (13,251); 6, Kóya (7,762); 7, Gond (5,689).
Agency ... Gódávari	...	5	49,713	15,046	1, Telugu (96,784); 2, Kóya (27,942).
Total, Agency Tracts ...	...	**438,920**	**378,660**	**126,605**	
Total, British Territory ...	**28,461**	**487,820**	**10,908,637**	**6,543,032**	
Feudatory States. Travancore ...	10	128	551,274	738,859	1, Malayálam (2,079,271); 2, Tamil (448,322); 3, Konkaní (10,697); 4, Hindustání (5,455); 5, Telugu (5,426).
Feudatory States. Cochin	...	1,142	132,610	228,423	1, Malayálam (641,738); 2, Tamil (44,777); 3, Telugu (12,087); 4, Maráthí (8,732); 5, Konkaní (7,330).
Feudatory States. Pudukkóttai ...	...	1	130,073	47,748	1, Tamil (353,770); 2, Telugu (10,797).
Feudatory States. Banganapalle ...	...	1	8,794	9,227	1, Telugu (28,021); 2, Hindustání (6,482).
Feudatory States. Sandur	...	...	3,538	2,178	1, Canarese (7,232).
Total, Feudatories ...	**10**	**1,272**	**826,289**	**1,026,435**	
Grand Total ...	**28,471**	**489,092**	**11,734,926**	**7,569,467**	

NOTE.—The figures given in columns 18 and 19 show the total male agricultural and non-agricultural population including children.

APPENDIX

Statement showing the distribution by Civil

District or State of enumeration.	Sex.	Distribution by Civil Condition of 10,000 — All Ages. Un-married.	All Ages. Married.	All Ages. Widowed.	0—14. Un-married.	0—14. Married.	0—14. Wid-owed.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Ganjám	Males ...	4,976	4,698	326	9,410	569	21
	Females ...	3,315	4,755	1,930	7,750	2,145	105
Vizagapatam	Males ...	4,692	5,016	292	9,251	728	21
	Females ...	2,926	5,041	2,033	7,195	2,707	98
Gódávari	Males ...	5,335	4,367	298	9,819	177	4
	Females ...	3,337	4,359	2,304	8,223	1,702	75
Kistna	Males ...	5,169	4,534	297	9,864	132	4
	Females ...	3,340	4,649	2,011	8,223	1,724	53
Nellore	Males ...	5,461	4,210	329	9,933	65	2
	Females ...	3,297	4,444	2,259	8,709	1,252	39
Cuddapah	Males ...	5,586	3,873	541	9,949	49	2
	Females ...	3,230	4,064	2,706	8,915	1,046	39
Kurnool	Males ...	5,192	4,257	551	9,861	135	4
	Females ...	3,167	4,381	2,452	8,551	1,406	43
Bellary	Males ...	5,169	4,308	523	9,760	230	10
	Females ...	3,556	4,486	1,958	8,500	1,461	39
Anantapur	Males ...	5,469	3,939	592	9,912	85	3
	Females ...	3,425	4,205	2,370	8,806	1,161	33
Madras	Males ...	5,085	4,545	370	9,914	81	5
	Females ...	3,573	4,489	1,938	9,350	631	19
Chingleput	Males ...	5,586	4,120	294	9,937	62	1
	Females ...	3,986	4,370	1,644	9,297	690	13
North Arcot	Males ...	5,535	4,119	346	9,943	55	2
	Females ...	3,675	4,318	2,007	9,146	835	19
Salem	Males ...	5,452	4,214	334	9,926	73	1
	Females ...	3,903	4,240	1,857	9,481	507	12
Coimbatore	Males ...	5,481	4,189	330	9,919	80	1
	Females ...	4,039	4,199	1,762	9,570	421	9
Nílgiris	Males ...	5,218	4,547	235	9,915	85	...
	Females ...	4,211	4,472	1,317	9,641	352	7
South Arcot	Males ...	5,471	4,234	295	9,924	75	1
	Females ...	3,872	4,414	1,714	9,294	691	15
Tanjore	Males ...	5,377	4,216	407	9,939	60	1
	Females ...	3,670	4,231	2,099	9,407	580	13
Trichinopoly	Males ...	5,424	4,257	319	9,931	68	1
	Females ...	3,779	4,228	1,993	9,505	484	11
Madura	Males ...	5,403	4,253	344	9,912	86	2
	Females ...	3,903	4,278	1,819	9,633	357	10
Tinnevelly	Males ...	5,470	4,145	385	9,930	69	1
	Females ...	3,914	4,214	1,872	9,633	358	9
Malabar	Males ...	5,902	3,906	192	9,971	29	...
	Females ...	4,716	3,934	1,350	9,609	385	6
South Canara	Males ...	5,744	3,964	292	9,918	80	2
	Females ...	3,879	4,276	1,845	8,958	1,011	31
TOTAL ...	Males ...	**5,399**	**4,258**	**343**	**9,849**	**147**	**4**
	Females ...	**3,706**	**4,348**	**1,946**	**8,984**	**984**	**32**
Agency ... Ganjám	Males ...	5,264	4,323	413	9,724	270	6
	Females ...	4,542	4,493	965	9,324	654	22
Agency ... Vizagapatam ...	Males ...	4,964	4,697	339	9,726	266	8
	Females ...	4,124	4,835	1,041	9,375	597	28
Agency ... Gódávari ...	Males ...	5,378	4,266	356	9,850	146	4
	Females ...	4,008	4,349	1,643	8,937	1,023	40
TOTAL, AGENCY TRACTS ...	Males ...	**5,076**	**4,566**	**358**	**9,740**	**253**	**7**
	Females ...	**4,211**	**4,707**	**1,082**	**9,305**	**667**	**28**
Total, British Territory ...	Males ...	**5,387**	**4,269**	**344**	**9,846**	**150**	**4**
	Females ...	**3,723**	**4,361**	**1,916**	**8,994**	**974**	**32**
Feudatories ... Travancore ...	Males ...	5,251	4,395	354	9,933	63	4
	Females ...	4,525	4,360	1,115	9,676	317	7
Feudatories ... Cochin ...	Males ...	5,347	4,396	257	9,946	53	1
	Females ...	4,247	4,601	1,152	9,500	497	3
Feudatories ... Pudukkóttai ...	Males ...	5,488	4,181	331	9,937	63	...
	Females ...	3,919	4,167	1,914	9,633	357	10
Feudatories ... Banganapalle...	Males ...	5,211	4,117	672	9,927	71	2
	Females ...	2,969	4,190	2,841	8,796	1,164	40
Feudatories ... Sandur ...	Males ...	5,475	3,831	694	9,816	179	5
	Females ...	3,570	3,999	2,431	8,888	1,047	65
Total, Feudatories ...	Males ...	**5,293**	**4,370**	**337**	**9,936**	**61**	**3**
	Females ...	**4,389**	**4,384**	**1,227**	**9,626**	**367**	**7**

—continued.

Condition of 10,000 *persons of each sex at each age-period.*

persons of each sex at each age-period.

15—24.			25—39.			40—49.			50 and over.		
Un-married.	Married.	Wid-owed.	Un-married.	Married.	Widowed.	Un-married.	Married.	Wid-owed.	Un-married.	Married.	Widowed.
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
4,392	5,472	136	525	9,150	325	129	9,247	624	85	8,238	1,677
766	8,565	669	153	7,915	1,932	97	5,213	4,690	64	2,125	7,811
4,350	5,554	96	590	9,182	228	136	9,357	507	81	8,366	1,553
549	8,735	716	134	7,885	1,981	77	5,212	4,711	50	2,103	7,847
5,818	4,114	68	927	8,840	233	222	9,255	523	132	8,193	1,675
360	8,672	968	113	7,266	2,621	74	4,530	5,396	48	1,641	8,311
6,196	3,753	51	940	8,861	199	187	9,370	443	124	8,291	1,585
362	8,915	723	104	7,887	2,009	86	5,434	4,480	71	2,155	7,774
7,746	2,221	33	2,159	7,659	182	380	9,176	444	188	8,167	1,645
637	8,669	694	101	7,817	2,082	75	5,238	4,687	53	1,919	8,028
7,940	2,003	57	2,483	7,115	402	741	8,192	1,067	422	7,034	2,544
526	8,506	968	135	6,691	3,174	98	3,773	6,129	60	1,207	8,733
6,805	3,107	88	1,761	7,803	436	506	8,386	1,108	279	7,068	2,653
491	8,675	834	176	7,125	2,699	130	4,072	5,798	87	1,432	8,481
6,150	3,748	102	1,541	8,023	436	467	8,414	1,119	280	7,014	2,706
793	8,706	501	470	7,402	2,128	391	4,391	5,218	283	1,692	8,025
7,344	2,588	68	2,173	7,373	454	752	8,052	1,196	465	6,739	2,796
571	8,636	793	261	6,965	2,774	206	4,169	5,625	142	1,472	8,386
7,293	2,662	45	1,470	8,245	285	359	8,995	646	264	8,031	1,705
1,665	7,969	366	413	8,010	1,577	242	5,204	4,554	200	2,017	7,783
7,877	2,093	30	1,514	8,283	203	245	9,283	472	149	8,264	1,587
1,005	8,634	361	177	8,378	1,445	105	5,821	4,074	62	2,344	7,594
7,730	2,234	36	1,688	8,047	265	341	8,996	663	176	8,004	1,820
723	8,749	528	156	7,782	2,062	101	4,832	5,067	62	1,808	8,130
7,222	2,721	57	1,400	8,327	273	282	9,030	688	150	8,013	1,837
1,315	8,326	359	153	8,083	1,764	76	5,055	4,869	50	2,045	7,905
6,945	3,005	50	1,300	8,449	251	263	9,058	679	151	7,933	1,916
1,784	7,884	332	97	8,194	1,709	56	5,355	4,589	41	2,464	7,495
7,071	2,881	48	1,643	8,082	275	323	9,116	561	136	8,543	1,321
1,717	7,959	324	372	8,129	1,499	185	5,574	4,241	148	2,672	7,180
7,540	2,423	37	1,429	8,351	220	262	9,221	517	142	8,275	1,583
1,285	8,373	342	188	8,305	1,507	102	5,620	4,278	54	2,232	7,714
7,268	2,688	44	1,192	8,496	312	251	9,022	727	168	7,803	2,029
1,390	8,189	421	135	8,026	1,839	87	5,197	4,716	48	1,928	8,024
7,657	2,306	37	1,470	8,303	227	251	9,204	545	141	8,250	1,609
1,676	7,960	364	151	8,144	1,705	96	5,361	4,543	56	2,232	7,712
7,157	2,778	65	1,280	8,439	281	234	9,115	651	136	8,035	1,829
2,115	7,603	282	166	8,393	1,441	96	5,573	4,331	62	2,334	7,604
7,486	2,459	55	1,296	8,404	300	243	9,051	706	134	7,863	2,003
1,906	7,765	329	108	8,351	1,541	67	5,784	4,149	46	2,442	7,512
7,490	2,482	28	1,409	8,420	171	438	9,149	413	452	8,290	1,258
2,580	7,214	206	1,132	7,743	1,125	1,172	5,143	3,685	1,043	1,889	7,068
7,491	2,470	39	1,444	8,320	236	391	8,998	611	314	8,058	1,628
1,412	8,138	450	431	7,827	1,742	406	5,047	4,547	287	1,763	7,950
6,943	**3,001**	**56**	**1,374**	**8,358**	**268**	**312**	**9,043**	**645**	**193**	**7,989**	**1,818**
1,235	**8,259**	**506**	**240**	**7,905**	**1,855**	**182**	**5,145**	**4,673**	**136**	**2,021**	**7,843**
5,497	4,245	258	1,087	8,406	507	249	8,770	981	129	7,831	2,040
2,400	7,322	278	236	8,882	882	116	6,542	3,342	126	3,674	6,200
5,053	4,778	169	856	8,779	365	245	9,091	664	172	8,151	1,677
1,829	7,837	334	267	8,864	869	153	6,922	2,925	141	3,615	6,244
6,077	3,844	79	1,130	8,492	378	353	8,869	778	205	7,954	1,841
992	8,478	530	264	8,005	1,731	148	5,232	4,620	93	2,160	7,747
5,277	**4,542**	**181**	**952**	**8,642**	**406**	**258**	**8,978**	**764**	**165**	**8,035**	**1,800**
1,867	**7,790**	**343**	**258**	**8,776**	**966**	**142**	**6,618**	**3,240**	**130**	**3,410**	**6,460**
6,891	**3,049**	**60**	**1,360**	**8,368**	**272**	**310**	**9,041**	**649**	**192**	**7,991**	**1,817**
1,255	**8,244**	**501**	**241**	**7,931**	**1,828**	**181**	**5,181**	**4,638**	**136**	**2,047**	**7,817**
6,817	3,153	30	1,510	8,324	166	575	8,782	643	537	7,334	2,129
3,112	6,781	107	930	8,379	691	805	6,457	2,738	743	3,188	6,069
6,395	3,583	22	805	9,000	195	275	9,215	510	259	8,037	1,704
1,978	7,880	142	299	8,820	881	312	6,575	3,113	377	3,165	6,458
7,822	2,148	30	1,768	7,993	239	245	9,196	559	144	8,187	1,669
2,689	7,049	262	238	8,406	1,356	144	5,656	4,200	70	2,225	7,705
7,267	2,639	94	2,217	7,260	523	661	7,980	1,359	347	6,693	2,960
620	8,446	934	169	6,627	3,204	144	3,844	6,012	108	1,225	8,667
7,253	2,653	94	1,860	7,488	652	616	7,603	1,781	385	6,184	3,431
1,057	8,124	819	566	6,911	2,523	559	3,296	6,145	330	1,060	8,610
6,823	**3,148**	**29**	**1,408**	**8,409**	**183**	**490**	**8,887**	**623**	**445**	**7,535**	**2,020**
2,822	**7,041**	**137**	**727**	**8,445**	**828**	**626**	**6,341**	**3,033**	**581**	**3,025**	**6,394**

APPENDIX

Statistics of Education, Infirmities and

District or State of enumeration.	Sex.	Number of pupils, literates and illiterates in 10,000 of each sex. Learning.	Literate.	Illiterate.	Number of in 10,000 of Insane.	Deaf-mute.
		21	22	23	24	25
Ganjám	Males ...	239	807	8,954	2	9
	Females ...	11	23	9,966		
Vizagapatam	Males ...	207	541	9,252	3	10
	Females ...	13	25	9,962		
Gódávari	Males ...	298	752	8,950	2	6
	Females ...	33	47	9,920		
Kistna	Males ...	307	903	8,790	3	8
	Females ...	35	42	9,923		
Nellore	Males ...	261	875	8,864	2	11
	Females ...	31	30	9,939		
Cuddapah	Males ...	210	800	8,990	2	10
	Females ...	15	23	9,962		
Kurnool	Males ...	213	822	8,965	1	4
	Females ...	18	29	9,953		
Bellary	Males ...	297	1,043	8,660	2	8
	Females ...	17	37	9,946		
Anantapur	Males ...	209	783	9,008	2	9
	Females ...	14	22	9,964		
Madras	Males ...	992	3,135	5,873	11	6
	Females ...	259	643	9,098		
Chingleput	Males ...	449	1,527	8,024	2	11
	Females ...	30	78	9,892		
North Arcot	Males ...	332	1,181	8,487	2	10
	Females ...	19	47	9,934		
Salem	Males ...	196	754	9,050	1	7
	Females ...	16	29	9,955		
Coimbatore	Males ...	233	922	8,845	1	6
	Females ...	18	34	9,948		
Nílgiris	Males ...	419	1,280	8,301	2	7
	Females ...	166	308	9,526		
South Arcot	Males ...	310	1,333	8,357	2	8
	Females ...	13	32	9,955		
Tanjore	Males ...	537	1,870	7,593	2	9
	Females ...	27	50	9,923		
Trichinopoly	Males ...	328	1,330	8,342	2	9
	Females ...	24	49	9,927		
Madura	Males ...	312	1,469	8,219	2	8
	Females ...	12	36	9,952		
Tinnevelly	Males ...	453	1,839	7,708	2	6
	Females ...	50	104	9,846		
Malabar	Males ...	563	1,645	7,792	4	2
	Females ...	119	273	9,608		
South Canara	Males ...	370	991	8,639	2	5
	Females ...	46	70	9,884		
TOTAL ...	Males ...	**338**	**1,185**	**8,477**	**2**	**8**
	Females ...	**34**	**69**	**9,897**		
Agency ... Ganjám	Males ...	41	152	9,807	2	7
	Females ...	3	4	9,993		
Agency ... Vizagapatam	Males ...	23	314	9,663	1	4
	Females ...	1	8	9,991		
Agency ... Gódávari	Males ...	103	290	9,607	3	4
	Females ...	20	21	9,959		
TOTAL, AGENCY TRACTS ...	Males ...	**39**	**259**	**9,702**	**1**	**5**
	Females ...	**4**	**8**	**9,988**		
Total, British Territory ...	Males ...	**330**	**1,158**	**8,512**	**2**	**8**
	Females ...	**33**	**67**	**9,900**		
Feudatories ... Travancore	Males ...	402	1,911	7,687	2	3
	Females ...	77	269	9,654		
Feudatories ... Cochin	Males ...	664	2,383	6,953	3	5
	Females ...	172	376	9,452		
Feudatories ... Pudukkóttai	Males ...	329	1,444	8,227	2	10
	Females ...	13	30	9,957		
Feudatories ... Banganapalle	Males ...	180	918	8,902	2	7
	Females ...	7	23	9,970		
Feudatories ... Sandur	Males ...	259	987	8,754	3	8
	Females ...	5	38	9,957		
Total, Feudatories ...	Males ...	**444**	**1,946**	**7,610**	**2**	**4**
	Females ...	**88**	**262**	**9,650**		

—*continued.*

Birth-place for each District and Feudatory state.

infirm persons the population.		Distribution by birth-place of 1,000,000 of the population.							
		Number born in							
							Countries in Asia		
Blind.	Leper.	District or State of enumeration.	Contiguous Districts or States in the Province.	Contiguous Districts or States in other Provinces.	Remote Districts of the Province.	Provinces or States in India beyond the Province.	Adjacent to India.	Remote from India.	Foreign Countries.
26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35
11	5	982,273	12,110	316	1,885	3,342	8	...	66
9	5	990,748	5,476	297	1,608	1,756	20	1	94
10	5	924,093	69,738	1,084	3,972	1,006	9	...	98
10	3	941,925	34,257	13,573	8,686	1,388	120	3	48
11	3	977,761	18,123	...	3,512	553	5	3	43
12	1	958,211	28,896	3,778	5,399	3,656	21	3	36
9	2	949,524	39,821	7,346	2,191	1,058	23	1	36
11	3	914,370	20,473	43,403	12,318	8,449	123	9	855
14	1	926,135	35,526	28,262	6,494	3,493	18	1	71
10	8	719,971	117,224	...	128,640	28,965	754	241	4,205
8	6	930,055	60,255	...	5,561	3,221	49	10	849
10	5	952,549	33,791	3,606	8,161	1,780	23	5	85
8	1	966,291	23,554	5,361	4,076	559	103	2	54
9	1	974,456	17,736	4,341	2,943	443	21	4	56
6	4	593,124	154,073	139,824	95,875	10,110	641	70	6,283
10	5	962,241	28,339	...	3,561	5,581	154	4	120
8	3	962,255	27,703	...	5,840	3,270	667	10	255
11	2	926,370	65,295	...	5,218	2,378	512	11	216
12	2	971,963	24,326	...	2,151	1,046	277	184	53
10	2	989,224	7,780	...	2,067	315	105	436	73
13	4	988,703	3,990	1,623	3,443	1,669	30	247	295
12	9	989,171	1,981	4,324	2,213	2,066	55	81	109
10	**3**	**958,407**	**28,107**	**4,316**	**6,238**	**2,501**	**140**	**66**	**225**
11	9	989,145	1,578	9,225	23	6	...	...	23
6	3	983,567	6,888	37	54	9,409	16	14	15
6	7	928,526	31,769	28,929	2,037	8,644	24	...	71
7	**5**	**979,485**	**8,071**	**5,057**	**241**	**7,102**	**13**	**9**	**22**
10	**4**	**959,172**	**27,379**	**4,343**	**6,020**	**2,668**	**136**	**64**	**218**
4	4	993,362	4,595	...	1,228	658	57	37	63
12	5	967,857	27,611	...	2,909	1,548	28	15	32
10	3	909,321	85,254	...	3,273	587	1,530	3	32
10	5	955,854	37,441	4,338	1,775	592	...	...	...
8	2	809,009	144,188	...	8,342	38,022	176	...	263
6	**4**	**978,980**	**17,967**	**42**	**1,789**	**939**	**200**	**29**	**54**